

GUIDANCE

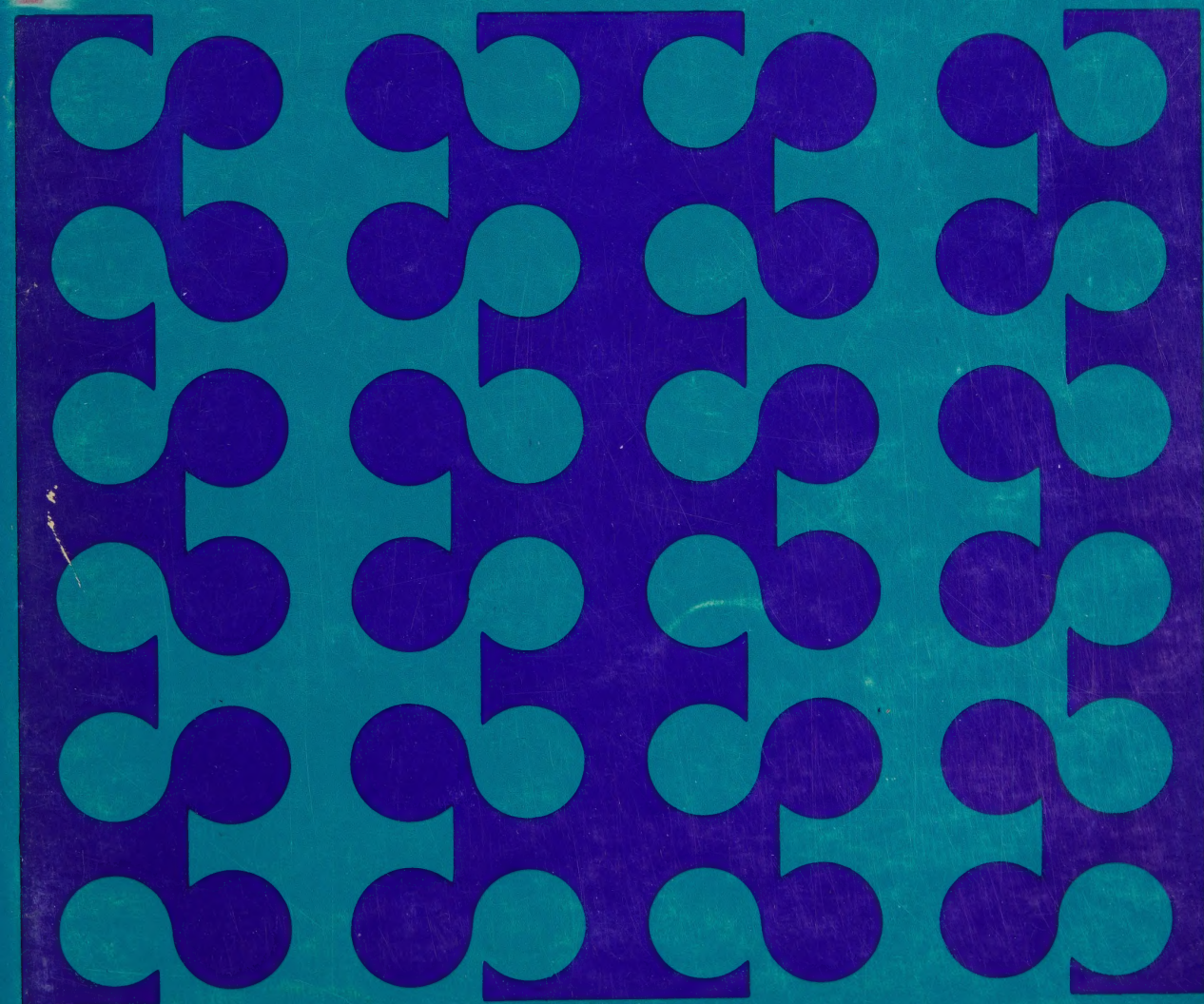
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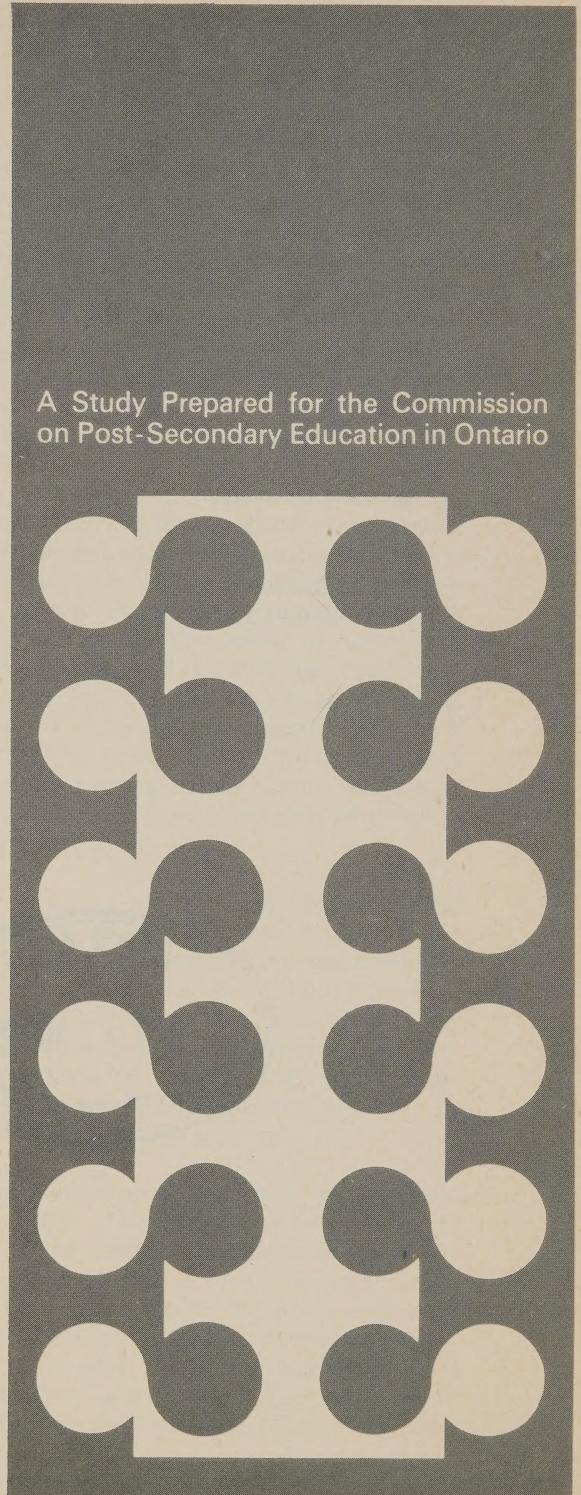
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GUIDANCE

A Study Prepared for the Commission
on Post-Secondary Education in Ontario

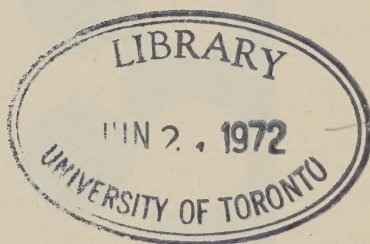


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Guidance

Editorial Foreword

The Commission on Post-Secondary Education in Ontario was required by its terms of reference "to consider, in the light of present provisions for university and other post-secondary education in Ontario, the pattern necessary to ensure the further effective development of post-secondary education in the province during the period to 1980, and in general terms to 1990, and make recommendations thereon." Among the particular items the Commission was asked to study and make recommendations on were "the educational and cultural needs of students to be met at the post-secondary level in Ontario", the patterns of student preference and demand in post-secondary education", and "the type, nature and role of the institutions required to meet the educational needs of the province with particular reference to existing institutions and their ability to meet present and future demands."

The Commission's preliminary work indicated that student counselling and guidance services had a potentially important role to play in shaping the structure of student demand for particular kinds of educational experiences and also in facilitating the efficient provision of such services. In one respect this process of counselling has important implications for the "manpower" training function of post-secondary institutions, some aspects of which have been treated in our background studies on *Manpower Forecasting and Educational Policy* and *Manpower Retraining Programs in Ontario*. But the role of counselling services extends beyond this matter of directing students into the "appropriate" occupational streams. They also have to do with a bewildering variety of matters relating to the student's experience while attending post-secondary educational institutions, his relationships with family and others outside, and personal decisions relating to entering, staying in, or leaving such institutions.

Although a voluminous literature, much of it of a critical nature, has accumulated on the subject of guidance and counselling services, it soon became apparent to the Commission that no readily accessible source of information concerning the particular situation in Ontario was immediately available. The Commission therefore sponsored a background study on the subject having as its principal objectives to describe and to assess the performance of such facilities and programs currently available in Ontario, to identify the areas in which these programs are held to be inadequate, and to propose alternative arrangements suggested by counselling programs being carried out in other jurisdictions.

A contract to carry out such a study was awarded on a competitive tendering basis to Hickling-Johnston Limited in June 1971. This firm was well qualified to undertake this assignment by virtue of its related experience and available personnel. The firm had direct access to a wide range of clients including private employers, the federal and several provincial governments. The firm's researchers also had access to data sources in the Canada Manpower Division of the Department of Manpower and Immigration and, as a result of recent assignments, the Metropolitan Toronto School Boards, the York and Lambton County Boards of Education, and the Departments of Education and University Affairs. They were

also in touch with a special research project currently being conducted at York University under the auspices of the Counselling Foundation of Canada.

The principal direction for the project was provided by Dr. H. A. Silver and Dr. N. Agnew. Dr. Silver is a registered psychologist who has had extensive experience in educational and career guidance of students and adults. Dr. Agnew's special areas of interest are decision theory and organizational psychology. He is Professor of Psychology, former Director of Psychological Services, and former Chairman of the Organizational Psychology Program at York University.

It was understood that limitations of time and budget would necessarily restrict the study and in particular would limit its quantitative aspects. Consequently the emphasis was placed on gathering existing data and evaluating it to determine what is currently happening in the vocational guidance field in Ontario. It was possible to supplement this, however, with a series of interviews with key practitioners, administrators and consumers of counselling services. It was also possible to conduct a small questionnaire survey of counsellors and students.

The authors' principal findings and observations are summarized in the "overview" section with which the report being published here begins. These observations and the other opinions and conclusions contained in the study, however, are solely those of the authors, and publication of the study does not necessarily mean that these opinions and conclusions are endorsed by the Commission.

COMMISSION ON
POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION

RESEARCH STUDY

#19

"GUIDANCE"

October, 1971
Hickling-Johnston

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PREFACE

This report begins with a condensed overview; the remaining sections are used to elaborate central issues and main proposals. The overview contains a brief description of the past, the current scene, key problems, and proposals for the future. Following this are sections focussing on university counselling services, counselling as seen by the community college counsellor, an assessment of counselling by students and, finally, a survey of private agencies and government departments offering counselling services to the community. The appendices include material of special interest to selected readers.

COUNSELLING SERVICES: AN OVERVIEW

In the past, under slow rates of change, with stable and familiar subcultures, our children were provided with basic vocational and social skills that could last them a lifetime. Counsel was provided for the few who lived on the fringe of these stable systems by clergy, family doctors, understanding magistrates and teachers. These counsellors had pretty reliable images of the relevant past, present and future. As the rate of change accelerated in the 1940s, 50s and 60s, as the present became less stable, and as the families and subcultures commenced to fragment, counselling of one form and another was provided for the growing number of people who were temporarily lost--personally, emotionally, educationally, or vocationally. Counselling in the schools became institutionalized. Now, however, in the 70s, increasing change and rising levels of uncertainty make it increasingly difficult not just for the minority but for the majority of us to generate reasonably reliable images of even the near future, and so it becomes difficult to build stable yet temporary bridges into that future. Counselling systems, like our educational systems, usually reflect the personal, vocational, and social requirements of a vanishing society.

Although the language varies, there is growing agreement

among various observers attempting to peer into the future, about what the new requirements will be for the society into which we are moving. At least three related life skills seem to be necessary: managing information and decision overload, learning how to learn and unlearn much more effectively, and establishing meaningful interpersonal relationships in a temporary society and rapidly changing subcultures.

The Current Scene

Counselling services were usually set up reluctantly to help manage the crises created by markedly increasing the number and variety of students attending post-secondary institutions. While some faculty, administrators, and parents still hope in vain for a return to the good old days (small enrolments of students who were neat and tidy physically, intellectually, emotionally, and politically), increasing numbers are accepting the fact that rapid rates of growth and change leave more students, faculty, and parents who are uncertain, who face repeated crises, who are hampered by obsolete individual and institutional habits, who are not utilizing or developing their capacities to a level even near the optimum.

A counselling service is intended to assist students to develop their capacities and interests as fully as possible within the academic institution and to help students in

difficulties to achieve the progress of which they are otherwise capable. The issues that bring students to counselling centres are intertwined and attempts to separate vocational, educational, personal, and growth issues are doomed to reduce the effectiveness of the service. While counsellors and counselling centres must be prepared to help with all these issues, too much specialization results in superficial help. The client does not neatly categorize his concerns to fit in with the classification system representing the special interests of the counsellor. For this report, then, it is assumed that counselling is a multifaceted and interrelated process; no attempt is made to draw arbitrary distinctions between what are often treated as different kinds of counselling. In other words, the service is concerned with enabling students to realize their full potential within the academic environment, (Kirk et al, 1971).

More specifically, counselling services are designed to assist people to:

- 1) manage general uncertainty resulting from information and decision overload;
- 2) manage crises arising from the rapid rate of change and the growing complexity surrounding them;
- 3) learn how to shed obsolete and debilitating

- habits: cognitive, emotional or inter-personal;
- 4) develop their interests and capacities to a level more in keeping with their potential.

Services

To achieve these four major goals counselling centres aim to provide a variety of services:

- a) up-to-date and condensed information about educational and career options and the provision of related testing programs (all commonly referred to as guidance services);
- b) help for students in comparing available options and making choices that keep alternative options open. This is particularly important as we move into an era of serial careers and continuous education. Relevant services include individual and group counselling, combined with self-help projects as well as course sampling and job sampling programs;
- c) crisis management services in the form of immediately available opportunities to explore feasible courses of action with attentive and experienced people, under non-threatening but realistic conditions. Short-term individual or group counselling is done with these basically normal students facing a variety of problems

(pregnancy, drugs, authority crises, interpersonal hangups, course failure, changing patterns of sexual behaviour, and general growing pains);

- d) intensive one-to-one counselling services by professional counsellors for severely disturbed students who move from one crisis right into another. This in some cases enables a senior student to complete a degree, in other cases leads to referral to an outside agency, and in some instances necessitates advising a student to drop out of college or at least delay his plans.
- e) help in unlearning, relearning, and growth programs for the majority of students, whose capacities remain far below potential levels. The aim of these individual, group, and "outreach" programs is to help the bulk of students who arrive at college with overlearned cramming and system playing habits to reshape themselves and the institution, so that their college years become a more exciting and engaging personal, academic, and career growth experience.

Evaluation

Like other professionals, counsellors devote relatively

little time or effort towards systematic program evaluation.

What evidence there is suggests the following conclusions:

1. Policy and terms of reference for counselling services remain vague in the eyes of administrators. Operationally, counselling centres range from those focussing on one-to-one services for disturbed students and short-term crisis-management support for a wide variety of students, to those offering a wide range of programs aimed at student development and growth.
2. While a significant number of administrators still see counselling as a service for the "weak" and the "dull", a large number of studies indicate that students who come for counselling do not differ in academic ability from the total student body.
3. The large majority of students utilizing counselling services rate them as beneficial. However, the question remains open concerning the number of students receiving long-term benefits as opposed to short-term crisis-management benefits. The data on which to make a definitive judgment do not as yet exist.
4. More significantly, the question remains open concerning the relative influence of counselling

services, and indeed the total post-secondary educational experience, when compared to pre-college influences, and when compared to college peer group influences. Province-wide benefit studies of post-secondary education are badly needed before rational planning can be accomplished concerning the relative influence of various components of the system, including counselling services.

5. Rapid rates of change will increase the need for services now included under the counselling rubric; however, current staffing and program patterns will be grossly inadequate to meet the needs. Even if funds were available there will never be enough professionals. When problems become very widespread they cannot be delegated to one group of specialists. Rather the preferred strategy probably lies in the increased utilization and development of currently available yet untapped resources (e.g., faculty and students), and the design of new patterns of service delivery.
6. Some promising developments in this direction are now under way and should be encouraged: group counselling, mobile counsellors, peer counsellors, faculty advisors, lay counsellors, self-help

programs, computerized information systems, more flexible academic programming, co-ordination and reduced duplication of agency resources (Manpower offices, high schools, universities and colleges, mental health facilities, private agencies). While certain services must be decentralized, others lend themselves to co-ordination and centralization.

7. Finally, there is now sufficient evidence of the potency of peer-group influence that we can no longer ignore it in designing our counselling and educational programs. However, if we are to work with, rather than apart from, or against, such strong influences, we require a much better understanding of who is learning what from whom. Thus, in addition to province-wide benefit studies, we need specific studies of peer-group influences in high school, college, and university.

The Future

Is it likely that the need for counselling services will decline? These services were set up to help manage the uncertainty and crisis resulting from the increased number and variety of students attending post-secondary educational institutions. That was before current attempts to provide customized educational experiences for each student, before

the advent of political activism, and before the prospects of the open university with still broader admission policies. These new developments, which are now gaining steam, create permutations, combinations, and collisions that make previous levels of uncertainty and crisis management demands pale by comparison. Is it really so surprising to conclude that more people will seek counsel, formal or informal, good, bad, or indifferent?

In summary, it is proposed that, rather than decreasing, the need for counselling services is growing. Increasing complexity and rates of change lead to more "normal" people needing help in managing information and decision overload, in managing crises, in developing more efficient ways of unlearning and relearning, and in establishing meaningful interpersonal relations in a highly mobile society.

Proposals

There are no simple answers to these challenges. We will need to experiment with alternative approaches. Nevertheless, certain obvious proposals can be made at this time:

1. It is a form of organizational idiocy to have over 600 institutions (universities, colleges, high schools, and Manpower Centres) all attempting to keep up-to-date information concerning the rapidly growing and changing

number of educational and career options and necessary student qualifications. A centralized, user-oriented information system is a necessity. Also necessary are decentralized services designed to help students compare alternatives and make choices that keep options open as we move into an era of serial careers and continuous education, formal or informal.

2. Educational institutions at all levels must rediscover the fact that the most efficient means of learning is through intensive contact with the material and the teacher under relatively pleasant conditions. Currently, for most students, such intensive contact is with peers and so it is they who provide the critical material and the significant teachers. Comprehensive studies of what students are learning from whom are long overdue (Astin and Panos, 1969).
3. While counsellors have perhaps been more aware than most that people unlearn and relearn as a result of intensive contact (hence their fixation on one-to-one long-term counselling), they have been slow to develop new approaches suitable for working with increased numbers. There are, however, some promising trends which should be

encouraged, such as increased utilization of group counselling, group self-help programs, peer counsellors, mature lay counsellors, the use of mobile counsellors who become part of natural peer groups, thus working with that strong influence rather than apart from it, as well as training faculty in the use of more effective small-group teaching and student advising methods.

4. It is proposed that emphasis should be given to developing new patterns of service delivery focussing on the utilization and training of as yet relatively untapped resources (teachers and students). Whether the counsellor should or should not be a teacher is not the central issue. The central point is that the counsellor should be an integrated member of the academic community, someone with whom the student has frequent contact, whether he or she be teacher, or student, or professional counsellor, or janitor.
5. With respect to the evaluation of counselling services, it is proposed that program evaluation become an integral and ongoing part of the program. To do otherwise is not only inefficient, but also immoral. At a minimum, a systematic follow-up of a random sample of clients seen should be conducted annually.

6. Past and current studies of the benefits of post-secondary education focus on the point that graduates make more money and so pay more taxes. Is this really the extent of the payoff of our massive commitment of physical and human capital? Or is it that governments, post-secondary institutions, and professionals lack the motivation to commit the necessary conceptual and methodological ingenuity required to start evaluating the supposedly broad benefits, to the student and the public, of our huge investments in post-secondary education?

If the universities, colleges, and government are to face their responsibility for accountability to the students and the public, we must be prepared to commit continuing and significant resources to evaluating the outputs of higher education. Otherwise, the government and the post-secondary institutions will limit their relationship to a cost control struggle, which will result in our knowing that an education costs less than it used to, but we still won't know what it is worth.

DATA BASE

Our study is based on various sources of information. Internal Department of Education publications and major documents produced by staff of university, college, and high-school counselling units have been examined with great interest. About 175 personal interviews were held with senior administrators, education officials, parents, students, counsellors, teaching faculty, and professional colleagues. A comprehensive literature survey was conducted. Approximately 350 students were canvassed through a mailed questionnaire. Two-thirds of these were high-school students in the Metropolitan Toronto, Waterloo, Sudbury, Parry Sound, Barrie, Simcoe, and Thunder Bay areas. The other one-third represented college of applied arts and technology students coming from the Toronto, Peterborough, and Kitchener districts. Approximately 20 per cent of the college counsellors and an equal number of high-school counsellors who belong to O.S.C.A. (Ontario School Counsellors' Association) were polled by means of a guidance questionnaire.

The scope of this study was obviously limited by the timing and resource limitations and by the fact that some key sources of information were unavailable due to summer vacations. Further data might have been helpful in

delineating more accurately the implications of some of our proposals, and in making more explicit the conditions under which certain suggestions would work out well, very well, or perhaps even poorly. Notwithstanding the above qualification, we believe our data to be sufficiently clear to enable us to provide a reasonably valid description of the state of counselling in our province's educational institutions, as well as feasible proposals for future development.

COUNSELLING IN ONTARIO UNIVERSITIES

"I seem to be making myself up as I go along,
and so do a lot of my friends."

A York Student

The Past

The value system of the academic community in the not-too-distant past might be characterized as "people who need counselling are either weak or dull, and shouldn't be in university. If they're really sick, they should go to the health service." And of course the health service is where it all began, back in the good old days when you might have one or two students who were a little bit psychotic, or a little bit pregnant. Residence dons, deans, and chaplains, in their accepted parental role, looked after the few "additional" problems presented by the minority, the majority of students being relatively neat and tidy physically, cognitively, emotionally, politically, and theologically, having been well-programmed by relatively neat and tidy families, school systems, and churches, working in concert.

Growth and Variety

Then we started to open up our universities. Starting with the World War II veterans, the number and variety of university students mushroomed. The health service-don model was no longer adequate to handle all the fall-out. We had generated an explosion and "counselling" services, whether so named or not, sprang up or were tacked on in response to a baffling array of crises involving:

student loans	reading problems
student housing	study problems
married students	marriage problems
handicapped students	family problems
foreign students	career problems
mature students	summer job problems
old students	educational planning problems
very disturbed students	sexual problems
potential students	loneliness problems
transfer students	ability problems
drop-out students	drinking problems
	etc.

Any systems engineer could have told us that if you significantly increase the number and variety of inputs into a system, you are going to have to radically alter your organization or an increasing portion of your resources will go to crisis management.

In the main, universities have followed the latter course by default, reluctantly committing increased resources to crisis management, still somehow feeling that such problems don't really belong in "The University", and hoping that maybe they'll go away and we can get back to the good old neat and tidy days.

We are not claiming that the universities are now servicing a significantly broader spectrum of students in socio-economic terms; indeed, the evidence suggests that the large majority of university graduates still come from "middle- and upper-middle-class" backgrounds. What we are proposing is that students arriving at university from such backgrounds are a much more heterogeneous group as a result of the fragmentation and broadening of middle-class values. The incoming students are not nearly so neat and tidy physically, cognitive-

ly, emotionally, politically, theologically, or in terms of the work ethic as they once were. They are much more willing and able to challenge all forms of authority than they once were. Their challenges and demands create crises, and the markedly increased size of the institutions makes integrated and rational planning difficult, resulting in patchwork crisis management. The resulting frustration, confusion, and anger generates more crises and an increasing need for counsel. Furthermore, there is a thrust for significant and meaningful experiences now. Increasing numbers of students are no longer prepared to see the university years as a period of enforced apprenticeship, with a promissory note for "good" things in the future. Whether this is right or wrong, whether this is as it should be, or not, is another question. Nevertheless, it is a fact of life, and must be treated as such. Wishing it were not so will solve nothing; relying on formerly adequate patterns of response and organization will prove inadequate; ignoring the need for counsel in times of rapid change will make ostriches of us all.

We are saying that, while patchwork crisis management may be the response of choice for temporary and isolated dislocations, when the rhythm of rapid change becomes the basic beat for large segments of the population, our organizational response patterns must change basically as well, if we are

to avoid an enduring and debilitating cacophony.

But the response of choice for most universities continues to be crisis management. Typically, then, university counselling services have been set up reluctantly, housed reluctantly, staffed reluctantly, and certainly budgeted reluctantly. Often physically and academically off the beaten track, the staff usually have been viewed as second-class citizens in comparison with faculty (in terms of pay, academic status, sabbaticals, teaching responsibilities, serving on key committees, tenure, work year, etc). The staff attracted to such settings were understandably a mixture of saints, professionals, atypical academics, masochists, academic camp followers, and gentle souls interested in attempting to help people.

It has been said that changing a university has all the implications of moving a graveyard. Generally, the older universities have been the slowest to recognize that they were expecting too much from services that were adequate in the neat and tidy days when the health service, residence dons, and inclined faculty could cope with the relatively small number of students needing extra help. For example, one of our oldest and largest universities finally established a counselling service apparently only after considerable student pressure to do so. The newer universities usually included a provision for counselling services in their

establishment plans. While some are still tied to the health service, the major trend is to dissociate counselling from illness and so from the health service, although in instances where the two services exist they can supplement each other through cross-referrals and program co-ordination.

Typical Services

University guidance and counselling centres typically provide the following services:

1. A ready referral service for those students with personal problems which require intensive treatment and/or hospitalization, (approximately 10 per cent of student population, Farnsworth, 1966).
2. A generally effective short-term crisis-management service for the growing number of students (estimated by the counselling staff to be 20-30 per cent) who encounter crises (educational, personal, family, vocational, institutional, drug, sexual, etc.) serious enough to interfere with their normal activities.
3. Study skill and reading programs.
4. Services in the form of testing and general vocational and educational guidance, (it is estimated that over 50 per cent of students want such guidance, Tyler, 1961).
5. A reference base for those students with no close peer group or family ties.
6. Teachers and/or practicum supervisors and settings for student trainees in the clinical and counselling fields.

Before moving on to a consideration of future development, let us examine briefly some of the current limitations of university counselling services.

Problems and Limitations of Typical Services

As would be expected, the counselling services offered in Ontario universities range in size and scope. Only one or possibly two come close to meeting the standards proposed for university counselling centres in North America (See Appendix C)*.

With staff-student ratios of 1-2,000 or 3,000 not unusual (compared to faculty-student ratio of 1-20), counselling services frequently operate with lengthy waiting lists, which defeats one of their prime purposes: to be of help when it is needed. While counsellors are likely to overestimate the need for their services, with some having proposed, in informal discussions, ratios of 1-300, such estimates are based on heavy reliance on one-to-one counselling. York's service, through increasing reliance on group counselling, self-help programs, peer counsellors, and mobile counsellors, is based on the assumption that ratios of 1-600 or 700 will provide adequate manpower to meet the most obvious needs.

* While these standards drawn up by directors of North American university and college counselling centres, and based on a Canadian report, are admirable, they are in some respects already obsolete. For example, in our view it is imperative to radically broaden the concept and numbers of those who can provide counsel, including student peers and faculty, rather than focussing only on the role of the professional counsellor.

Who Should be Counselling?

One of the problems in deciding what resources should be committed to counselling services arises from different perceptions of what segment of the student body should be served. If counselling is seen as merely a support service for severely disturbed students and those with low academic ability--and it is clear from our interviews that there are senior people in the academic community who still hold this view--then the resources required will be relatively low. On the other hand, if counselling services are seen as desirable for the majority of students, we will require a different resource base.

Regardless of what administrators, faculty, and counsellors feel should be the case, many different types of students utilize counselling services. For example, a variety of studies have indicated (see Tyler, 1961) that students who came for counselling did not differ from the total student body in high-school grades, college aptitude test scores, and achievement and personality test scores. Also noted by Tyler is a University of California study indicating that 28 per cent of Phi Beta Kappas had been clients of the counselling centre, as compared with 22 per cent of the whole student body. Thus, the evidence to date indicates that counselling of various forms is wanted and utilized by students of all ability levels.

Our interviews indicate that the terms of reference for counselling services are vague in the minds of many senior

administrators, except for often reluctant agreement that at least a service is required for those students who are obviously disturbed. Certainly, the effectiveness of even a service of this kind will depend not only on the quality of the service, but also on ease of access to it and immediacy of response to requests for help. Lack of staff and frequent referral to downtown agencies reduce the likelihood of students seeking help. For example, in a study of the distribution of severe emotional distress on a large campus, it was found that 75 per cent of those classified as "ill" had not visited the Mental Hygiene Clinic (Rust, 1960). Data such as these underline the risk of relying too heavily on a centralized referral agency, whether on campus or "downtown".

In summary, where a range of counselling services are offered, a wide variety of students utilize them. On the other hand, where the emphasis is placed on a service for severely disturbed students, using traditional staffing and service patterns, it is likely that only a small percentage of the students needing such help will seek it from such a service.

The Counsellor in the Academic Community

While universities change only reluctantly, so too unfortunately do the counsellors, many of whom persist in relying almost totally on one-to-one counselling, often running to

many sessions. This practice results in already inadequate counselling resources being concentrated on a relatively few students. Furthermore, while there are pockets of feeling among university administrators and faculty that students requiring counselling are "weak" or "dull", university counsellors are partly to blame. Just as the counsellees are suspected by some to be second-class citizens (a belief not supported by data noted previously), counsellors are similarly suspect. Some counsellors want all the status and perquisites of the faculty, but don't like the heat of the faculty kitchen, generated by pressure to participate in scholarly activities, to do research, and to publish. This reluctance on the part of counsellors is less and less in evidence as young, well-trained counsellors with good academic and professional credentials are brought on the scene. In 1968, Appley, Heinzle, and Lee reviewed counselling services in Canadian universities, and conducted a survey of the educational background of counsellors in Ontario universities. The total at that time was 17 full-time and 37 part-time staff. Included in these totals were four full-time and seven part-time Ph.D. psychologists and two part-time MDs. There are now approximately 30 full-time Ph.D.s; in all there are over 100 trained counsellors, including Ph.D.s, M.A.s, M.D.s, and social workers.

Partly as a result of these new staffing patterns there is a gradual shift from counselling services being seen as an

arm of the administration to becoming an integrated part of the academic community. As a result, counselling services are trusted and used by more students. By having counsellors participate in the academic enterprise they increase their contact with students and faculty generally, opening up lines of communication that not only help reduce the second-class citizen image, but open up referral opportunities for both students and faculty.

Another obvious advantage growing out of academic integration is that graduate students increasingly become involved in practical training and counselling in the counselling centre, under the supervision of academically respectable as well as professionally competent counsellors. These students in effect become peer group counsellors.

Although increasing involvement in the academic community has its advantages, there are some potential problems. For example, in their eagerness for academic involvement some counselling services have done so at a high price. Their staff have "gone teaching", depleting an already short-staffed department. In one Ontario university, where the counselling staff are fully integrated into the academic community, the academic departments buy teaching time from the counselling centre, with the money being used to replace the loss in counselling manpower by hiring extra full-time or part-time counsellors.

We have described briefly the typical services and some of the problems involved, but what of program effectiveness? While such evaluation is complex, certain relatively clear points emerge.

Evaluating Counselling Services

Although there are many approaches to evaluating counselling services, long-term follow-up studies using large numbers of students are so costly and complex that such studies are rare. Furthermore, in the past the counsellors' orientation was almost wholly that of a professional helper, with little emphasis on research, and so, typical of most professionals, little emphasis was placed on program evaluation. As an increasing number of counsellors become integrated into the academic community, the emphasis on research and program evaluation is being reflected.

Approaches to evaluating counselling can be divided into five general classifications: 1) client satisfaction; 2) counsellor ratings of client benefits; 3) improvements in academic performance or other behavioural changes; 4) long-term follow-up studies; and 5) a systems approach based on multiple criteria reflecting the interests of clients, counsellors, parents, administrators, faculty, and funding agencies, public and private. This latter approach, which is still in the embryo stage, is the one favoured by the authors and so will be discussed in more detail.

It is obvious that one basic criterion to be used in evaluating counselling services is client satisfaction. Nevertheless, relatively few counselling services systematically collect this data, although studies of client satisfaction have been done (Campbell, 1965; Merenda and Rothney, 1958; Miller, 1952; Singer and Stefflre, 1954; etc.). Generally speaking, to the extent that counsellors are readily available and highly motivated to help, the majority of clients rate the service well, while to the degree that contacts with the counsellor are highly scheduled, and the counsellor is seen as an agent of the administration, client satisfaction drops. York's Psychological Services Department has done follow-up studies of their client students for the past five years and finds that the large majority of student ratings are very positive. These findings are supported by an independent study of student services done by York's Sociology Department (Jansen, 1969) which reported that 78 per cent of the students sampled who used Psychological Services rated them as good or excellent, while 15 per cent rated them satisfactory, with 7 per cent rating them poor or unsatisfactory. On the other hand, the faculty advisory system was rated as good or excellent by 28 per cent and as satisfactory by 25 per cent. This program involves having each faculty member serve as an academic advisor to a dozen or so students. It is an excellent idea

and will no doubt become increasingly effective. However, the program is working under several handicaps: large numbers of the faculty are new and are almost as confused as the students they advise; rapid rates of growth and change in course offerings, openings, and prerequisites make it difficult to keep abreast of the current scene; limited experience in advising or counselling on the part of many faculty make them feel ill at ease, and so less effective than they could be.

In terms of utilization rates for counselling services, they range from 5 to 25 per cent of the student body in Ontario universities, which reflects differences in numbers of staff available, as well as the type of service offered. Typically, first-year students make the greatest use of counselling services. The highest utilization rate to date by York's first-year students was approximately 40 per cent, with each student averaging approximately five contact hours.

If we evaluate counselling services in terms of client satisfaction, it appears that the ready availability of counsellors who are highly motivated to help will usually lead to satisfied clients and high utilization rates. It has also been proposed that counsellor ratings of client benefits also be included, but there are problems involved in using such ratings (Poole, 1957; Richardson, 1954). The major weakness in relying too heavily on this criterion is of course that

counsellors may find it difficult to evaluate objectively the results of their own treatment. Nevertheless, at York, where there is an attempt to have both clients and counsellors independently rate each counselling session in terms of client benefit, the counsellors tend to rate the sessions slightly lower than the clients do. Taken alone, counsellor ratings are limited but, when combined with client ratings and independent measures, they can help provide an overall picture of the service.

In addition to client satisfaction and counsellor ratings of client benefits, some attempts to evaluate counselling include academic indicators such as changes in students' grades (Hill and Grieneeks, 1966; Richardson, 1960; Riegart, 1969; Young, 1955). The findings in this area are mixed, with some showing improved grades and others showing no differences. The studies present difficulties of interpretation. For example, it can be argued that, in those instances where grades do not significantly improve, counselling has served to prevent them from falling. More importantly, as universities move increasingly to an ungraded or a pass-fail system, it becomes increasingly difficult to evaluate the effects of counselling on grades, and so new approaches are needed. For example, some York students were recently trained to derive more benefit from small group tutorials, with the tutorial leaders rating all class members before and

after the training program. The tutorial leaders did not know which members of their class had participated in the training program and yet the "trained" students showed the greatest improvement.

In addition to grades and quality of performance in tutorial groups, other behavioural indices can be developed. For example, Kiresuk and Sherman (1968) demonstrated that even those goals that appear to be highly personalized can be scaled, leading to relatively objective measures which can be then used to evaluate not only the effectiveness of a given counsellor, but of an entire department. In other words, the technology is now available to permit counsellors to start developing more objective measures of their effectiveness. It is not a simple task, but neither is it an impossible one--which has been the all too common assumption in the past.

It has already been indicated that long-term follow-up studies of counselling were rare both because of the cost and complexity involved. David Campbell (1965) attempted to evaluate the effects of university counselling after a lapse of 25 years, utilizing a wide range of criterion measures. Using archival data Campbell identified his client and non-client population in terms of grade point averages, high-school rank, scores on English proficiency and college entrance exams. He combined this information with data obtained

through follow-up interviews, questionnaires, and various tests. While the differences between the counselled and non-counselled 25 years later were not large, they tended to be in the same direction, favouring the counselled students, especially in terms of achievement.

While not specifically directed at counselling services, a major follow-up study by the American Council on Education (Astin and Panos, 1969) is of direct relevance to policy setting and evaluation for counselling services, as well as for the total university. Using a national sample drawn from 246 universities and colleges, Astin and Panos investigated the effects of institutional characteristics and educational practices on students' academic performance, choice of a college major, and career choice. They found that even in the senior year one student in ten changed his major field of study, and one in four changed the long-term plans for his career. The data for this study were collected in the mid-1960s and, if anything, today's students appear to be even more uncertain. One of the most important findings of the above study was the apparent strong influence of peer groups on students' decisions regarding college major and career. If after entrance to university a student does shift his career choice, it is likely to be in the direction taken by his peers.

Another finding is that students are more likely to drop

out of large universities than of liberal arts colleges, and if they stay they are more likely to lower their educational aspirations. Astin and Panos suggest that this may be attributed, at least in part, to a low level of faculty and student involvement in class, to the relatively impersonal atmosphere, to a relative lack of concern for individual students in most universities. Supporting this interpretation are data in York's follow-up studies, indicating that large numbers of students list as one of the main reasons for coming to the counselling centre the desire to have an opportunity of "talking things over with someone who has the time to listen". Since most of the "environmental" effects in the 246 institutions appeared to be mediated through the peer environment rather than the classroom, administration, or physical environment, it is obvious that we need more investigations of the nature and influence of undergraduate peer groups, not only in terms of the selection of an educational major, or a career, but also in terms of values, beliefs, and behaviour patterns. It should come as no surprise that we are influenced most by those with whom we have intensive and continuous contact. Counsellors have recognized this principle and hence their past fixation on intensive one-to-one counselling where staffing patterns and institutional practices permit, (certainly more common in university counselling services than in those in the high schools).

However, counselling services, as well as most segments of the university, have tended to ignore the potent influence of peer group pressures. However, an increasing number of university counselling centres are introducing mobile counsellor programs where counsellors move out of their office to work in close contact with natural peer groups, as well as training students, who are already natural members of many groups, to serve as peer group counsellors. Thus, it is proposed that one of the criteria to be used in evaluating a counselling service should include an accounting of those programs designed to work with rather than apart from strong peer group influences.

Finally, it was proposed earlier that a systems approach, including cost-benefit analysis, could be developed as a major aid to funding agencies, administrators and counsellors in evaluating and improving the quality of service. Since such an approach is still very much in the embryo stage, its discussion will be delayed until the end of this section.

In summary, there is little doubt that university counselling centres are providing a variety of services to an increasing number of students who rate these services as important and beneficial. Nevertheless, counsellors, like other professionals, commit insufficient resources to the development and application of program evaluation criteria, not only as a means of justifying their services to administra-

tors, but also to ensure that program modifications are based on more than passing professional fads.

The Open and Customized University

While the Astin and Panos study referred to previously is provocative, the data were collected after the universities and colleges had opened themselves to a greater number and variety of students, but before the large-scale attempts at individualized programming, before political activism, and also before the prospects of a really open university loomed large.

We are now rapidly moving into the era of individualized programming, and of increasingly sophisticated political activity by a bewildering number of student, faculty, and administrative groups (Bissell, 1970) to say nothing of increasingly persistent and effective government influence in what were once considered exclusively faculty affairs. Add to this the prospect of the really open university and for some it has all the appeal of another shark in the bathtub. The interaction of individualized programming, increased political activity, and the open university presents a challenge to our ingenuity. In fact, the resulting permutations, combinations, and collisions--physical, emotional, political--are creating crises that make those of the 1960s pale by comparison. As a result, the university structure is gradually loosening up, or breaking down, depending on your point of view.

The information and decision overload resulting from the increased paper flow alone is overwhelming, even if there were no perpetual revisions to the original message. Then typically, when, as a result of a lack of information, misinformation, out-of-date information, or a hot tip, students make a choice, the simple logistics of getting people together who initially think they want to be together is astonishing. After discussions with their academic advisor concerning which courses they should take, students find that by the time they get to the registration desk their first-choice courses are filled. The problem simplifies itself then to finding a course that is open and fits their timetable. But all this, while frustrating and confusing, is still relatively simple compared to the physical, emotional, political, departmental, faculty, and administrative logistics involved in attempting to rearrange individual programs of study for the many students who feel, and feel strongly, that they are in an unrewarding course, "through no fault of my own". Finally, some of the more energetic students decide that, rather than shift courses, why not mould the courses they are in, leading to lengthy classroom hassles. Under circumstances such as these it is highly probable that more people will seek counsel, formal or informal, good, bad or indifferent.

General Conclusions

There are certain general conclusions arising from the foregoing discussion:

1. Policy and terms of reference for counselling services in universities are generally vague.
2. Operationally, counselling centres range from those focussing on services for disturbed students and short-term crisis-management support for a variety of students, to those offering a wide range of programs aimed at student development and growth.
3. The large majority of students utilizing these services rate them as beneficial.
4. The question remains open concerning the number of students receiving long-term benefits as opposed to short-term crisis-management benefits. The data on which to make a definitive judgment do not yet exist.
5. Also, the question remains open concerning the relative influence of counselling services, and indeed the total post-secondary experience, when compared to pre-university influences, and to university peer group influences.
6. Province-wide benefit studies of post-secondary education, of a much more sophisticated nature than have been done to date, are badly needed before rational planning can be accomplished concerning the relative influence of

various components of the system, including counselling services.

7. Rapid rates of change will increase the need and demand for services now included under the counselling rubric.
8. Current staffing and program patterns will be grossly inadequate to meet the needs.
9. Even if funds were available there will never be enough professional counsellors to meet the needs; furthermore, when problems become very widespread they cannot be delegated to one group of specialists. The preferred strategy probably lies in the increased utilization and development of currently available yet untapped resources (e.g. faculty, students, and laymen) and the design of new patterns of service delivery.
10. Some promising developments in this direction are now under way and should be encouraged (group counselling, mobile counsellors, peer counsellors, trained faculty advisors, lay counsellors, self-help programs, computerized information systems, more flexible academic programs, etc.).
11. Thus the trend is away from the centralization of counselling services except in the provision of
 - a) intensive treatment for severely disturbed students
 - and b) a centralized but user-oriented information system.Utilization of services, whether academic or counselling, is directly related to ease of access,

and while from a strictly resource allocation point of view it may seem rational to centralize, centralization is one of the most effective means of restricting service delivery. In other words counselling services should be a "front-line" service, not a behind-the-lines "casualty clearing station".

12. Finally, there is now sufficient evidence of the potency of peer group influences that we can no longer ignore them in designing our counselling and educational programs. The most promising program developments to date are probably the so-called outreach programs (mobile counsellors, peer counsellors, trained faculty advisors) which are all designed to supplement peer group influences with counsellor and faculty influences. However, if such an integration of influences is to be effective, we require a much better understanding of who is learning what from whom. Thus, in addition to province-wide benefit studies of post-secondary education, we need specific studies of university peer group influences.

Alternative Proposals

In addition to the conclusions noted above we would like to elaborate some alternative courses of action with respect to some of them.

A Centralized Information System

It is proposed that resources should be committed to establishing a centralized information system, designed to help reduce the information and decision overload facing students, parents,

teachers, and counsellors concerning currently available training and experience options and requirements. It has become patently silly to have literally hundreds of institutions all collecting, coding, storing, retrieving, and attempting to analyze trends in such massive heaps of ever changing data. (Because of the problems involved, vocational counselling becomes a low-priority function among most counsellors.) Such an information system will be effective to the extent it a) is readily available in terms of the student or user; b) produces information in a form that is meaningful to the student or user; and c) is reliable and up-to-date. A centralized computer facility with self-service terminals located in key access points is probably the preferred alternative, supplemented by "batch processing", in which students or other users mail in requests for information on cards that can be "read" and responded to by the computer. In fact, a centralized system based on batch processing and supported by good library technology at the user end would constitute a vast improvement. The staff of such a centralized service should give top priority to reporting trends and changes in educational and career options in a clearly displayed form to students, policy makers, and the media.

Ontario can benefit from computer-assisted programs developed elsewhere which are designed to facilitate vocational and educational counselling as well as student registration. The

Illinois Board of Vocational Education offers its CVIS programs (software) to other non-profit educational and government agencies. IBM and the Genesee District School Board have collaborated in developing a computer-assisted program (ECES) which should also be considered. Since some aspects of their program are copyrighted, they may be costly unless IBM is prepared to collaborate with the Ontario government on further developments. There are also promising developments in Canada, including Hollworth's work at the University of Calgary, and a computerized educational and vocational counselling program at the Northern Alberta Institute of Technology, Edmonton (West et al, 1971).

The Problem of Choosing from Available Options

While computerized information systems could keep students and other users informed about currently available options and requirements, the problem of choosing from among them remains. It is necessary to provide many students with effective means of exploring and comparing available options, of getting a feel for the goodness of fit of possible next moves, and of making choices that keep alternative options open. As Peter Drucker commented, "Here I am, fifty-seven years old, and I don't know what I'm going to be when I grow up." We have moved into the era of serial careers and continuous education. It is in this process of choosing among options that peer group pressures, the advice of trusted individuals, time pressures,

and chance are all potent forces. Guidance services to be effective must be a meaningful part of a student's daily experience; when ritualized and highly scheduled, such services become impotent.

Although it is obvious that a centralized information system is needed to provide timely and reliable information on educational career-experience options, and while it is equally clear that many students want and require opportunities to explore and test the current goodness of fit of alternative options, it is not clear what methods of doing so are likely to prove most beneficial. Therefore, our proposal is to experiment with a variety of methods in different settings. Thus, one institution may want to experiment with subcontracting this service to outside agencies; another may wish to use para-professionals with wide experience; some may use their own senior students; others may experiment with simulation techniques using educational and vocational games, or computer counselling; another may test the approach where every teacher is a counsellor and every counsellor is a teacher; still others may wish to experiment with no formal counselling services at all, and some with various combinations. Our own preference lies in the direction of increased utilization and development of faculty advisors and peer counsellors, a relatively untapped, yet potentially very large, resource pool.

Regardless of which approach is taken, if we are to end up in the position of being able to compare them, we require

co-ordination to the extent that at least some of the criteria of program effectiveness are common across the different institutions. Developing and collecting such data could be a joint function of representatives of each university and a research group in the centralized information facility.

Outreach Programs

An increasing number of counselling services are developing a variety of programs which are customarily called outreach services. The basic aim of such programs is to take services to the students, faculty, and residences (Randall, et al, 1971) as well as providing services best offered at one central location. It is assumed that counselling services will more likely be used and used effectively when provided by people frequently encountered in the course of usual campus activities, academic or extra-curricular.

An example is the mobile counsellor who becomes familiar with, and known to, already established groups and sub-systems, becoming part of their ongoing activities. Thus, the peer counsellor is already a natural member of a variety of established groups, an easy source of information, support, or referral to professional counsellors if the situation warrants. Similarly, the mobile professional counsellor who becomes an integrated member of student, faculty and administrative groups is more likely to be used in a consultative capacity, not only in crisis situations, but in situations where crises can be prevented through early action. Toronto, Waterloo, and York are among Ontario universities developing this general approach.

One of the most difficult problems is attempting to help a student or staff member who becomes very disturbed but won't seek help. With peer group and mobile counsellors available throughout the campus, the probability that help can be provided before the situation reaches crisis proportion is greatly increased.

Furthermore, once these counsellors become known they generate extra resources to assist students to develop their capacities and interests as fully as possible (training tutorial leaders in more effective small group teaching methods, helping improve the skill of faculty advisors, assisting residence councils with policy and discipline problems, helping develop programs for lonely and isolated students). A study by White (1970) indicated that it is the isolated students who tend to make use of a wide range of professional services, probably unwittingly in search of some reference group rather than the solution of any specific problem.

Similar developments are occurring at a few high schools. We were particularly impressed with Thornlea High School, near Thornhill, where every teacher serves as a counsellor to 15 or so students, where the professional counsellors teach regularly, many of them in basic subjects, and where a significant portion of their time is spent mingling informally with, and at the same time counselling, students and other teachers.

This approach is a good example of a front-line counselling service designed to increase the resource pool (every teacher a counsellor), and also to increase the ease of access to the professional counsellors by decentralizing the service, and by getting the counsellors out of their offices, where they can focus on crisis prevention and student growth, rather than on patchwork crisis management and on highly scheduled and artificial student interviews.

It is our view that outreach programs probably represent the most important current innovation in developing and delivering services to a wide range of students--services that will assist them to develop their capacities and interests as fully as possible, as well as help students in difficulty to achieve the personal and academic goals of which they are otherwise capable.

Counsellor Selection and Training

If our assumption that all of us will increasingly become counsellors of one kind or another is correct, then there must obviously be room for a wide variety of people with different training and different personalities. There can be great strength in such diversity. For example, a highly organized person who likes to deal with complex systems can be most helpful in developing and debugging sophisticated information systems, programmed learning systems, and also collecting and analyzing program evaluation data. At the other extreme,

the "hang loose" person is ideally suited for outreach counselling with its flexible time scale and non-linear type of experience and interaction under informal conditions.

The one-time heavy emphasis on tests by counsellors is declining as a result of general lack of confidence in their usefulness to either clients or counsellors. Increasingly testing is done very selectively; therefore training in test administration and interpretation will very likely decline.

A recent review of the literature on counsellor training (Layton, et al, 1971) concludes that professional counsellors will have to give increasing attention to the training and supervision of non-professional counsellors and provide consultation for them. Some professional counsellors will continue to serve as referral points for disturbed students where counselling competence appears to be related to such characteristics as openness, acceptance, empathy, sensitivity, and effectiveness in communication. They must, of course, have the skill to differentiate between various degrees of disturbance. While the literature suggests that to some extent these characteristics can be acquired through training, there is also evidence that the characteristics the trainee brings with him are critically important. The best selection procedure remains job sampling. But with increases in the variety of counselling services, from non-directive to highly struc-

tured, it becomes possible for an increasing number of trainees to find a compatible and worthwhile function.

It is proposed that support should go to those training programs aimed at selecting and training counsellors to train and supervise non-professionals and serve as their consultants, whether they be peer counsellors, mature lay counsellors, faculty, or residence dons.

It is also proposed that both training and service programs de-emphasize the categorizing of the issues clients bring to counsellors. In the past, too much emphasis has been placed on distinctions between vocational, educational, personal, and growth counselling. The client arrives as a whole person and rarely can the issues that concern him--or the solutions--be neatly categorized as vocational versus educational versus personal or growth issues. The issues more often than not are intertwined and unless counsellor training and service programs are designed to reflect this reality there is a tendency to have the service reflect the counsellor's pet specialty rather than the client's multifaceted needs. For example, many clients who present themselves as having vocational or educational problems, if given the opportunity, reveal that the major issue is a personal or interpersonal one, and on the other hand, counsellors who specialize in personal problems often miss the opportunity to assist the client with vocational, educational, and growth issues. This is not to say

that counselling centres should not offer a variety of programs to help dispel the "shrink" image, and because some specialization is necessary. But the core of counsellor training and of program design should be counselling the whole individual, with provision for ready access to a variety of counselling skills.

A Systems Approach to Cost-Benefit Analysis

If we are eventually to evaluate the benefits of counselling services, it must be done in the context of the larger system within which they operate (the post-secondary system), not only because sub-systems are greatly influenced by their context, but also because of the economies of scale involved.

A systems approach attempts to focus on the relationships between inputs and outputs of a system, whether the system is a factory or a university. In the case of a university, inputs include faculty, staff, physical plant, students, etc., while outputs include graduates, research, publications, etc. Cost-benefit analysis attempts to convert inputs and outputs into dollar values.

It is beyond the scope of this study to examine in detail the technical aspects of cost-benefit analysis in post-secondary systems. In any case, impressive technical studies and critiques are already available (Wildavsky, 1969; Fielden, 1969; Lawrence et al, 1970; Judy, 1970). While the technical problems involved are complex, it is proposed that the major stumbling

blocks to effective cost-benefit analysis are not technical but rather political and professional. Therefore, the brief discussion to follow focusses on these aspects of the problem.

There is no question that cost analysis is much, much simpler than benefit analysis, for a variety of reasons. As a result, cost-benefit studies of programs in health and education are long on costing models and data, and woefully short on benefit models and data. For example, the major conclusion to date concerning benefits arising from our massive investment of physical and human capital in post-secondary education is that graduates make more money and so pay more taxes.

Organizations focus their resources on three types of targets:

1. Obtaining increased resources (e.g. getting increases in operating and capital budget).
2. Obtaining increased degrees of freedom to practise preferred activities or technologies.
3. Obtaining increased benefits to prime clients.

In systems like universities, where it is difficult or threatening to determine or measure benefits to prime clients (item #3 above), organizations and professionals shift their focus to targets #1 and #2; they focus their efforts on capturing and holding resources and on practising their preferred technologies even in the absence of clear information

about client benefits. It is not suggested that professionals are insincere in the practice of their favorite technologies. Professionals are typically true believers, but in the absence of timely and relevant feedback concerning client benefits, "professional learning" is likely to be slow and inefficient--that is, there is little likelihood of learning which of their technologies are most effective in delivering client benefits. While feedback regarding client benefits is slow or delayed, leading to slow learning, feedback regarding success or degree of success in capturing and holding resources is fast and relevant. Thus, a significant portion of professional attention and learning capacity is focussed on resource-capturing activities and adjusting resource-getting techniques according to degree of success.

Although targets concerning client benefits are vague, targets regarding increased resources are clear. Similarly, professionals usually have clear targets concerning preferred activities or technologies (non-directive therapy or group therapy, or teaching large classes, or teaching small seminars of graduate students, or doing research, etc.) and, furthermore, professionals can soon tell whether they are getting increased or decreased degrees of freedom to do so. Therefore, attention and learning capacity are focussed on protecting and extending freedom to practise. Thus, it is proposed that in those organizations or departments lacking

relatively clear and timely feedback concerning client benefits, attention and effort is focussed on practising and defending favorite technologies, generating increased resources, and generating increased degrees of professional freedom--all justified in the name of client benefits and done sincerely, but usually without significant data on client benefits.

Who are the Prime Clients?

Perhaps the time has come to redefine who the prime clients are. Prime clients are those people who have a direct influence on resources inputs, resource reallocations, and professional practices. In terms of allocating new resources, the central resource-tap-administrators become prime clients of the system. Thus, the Department of Colleges and Universities becomes a prime client on the issue of acquiring additional budget. But in an established university, the growth budget represents only a small fraction of the university's overall operating and capital budget, which has already been captured. Consequently, while the central agency becomes a prime client to be serviced in order to acquire increased budget, this same agency is not usually a prime client on issues of resource reallocation, or significant changes in professional practice and technologies--and, of course, these represent the major investments in physical and human capital. It is not the central agency personnel who are the prime clients in obtaining shifts in

current operating budget and professional practices, but rather it is professional colleagues. It is with them we fight for reallocations; it is with them we debate to change curriculum, teaching methods, departmental structure. It is with them we compete for space, pay increases, promotion, publication and research funds.

Students as Tertiary Clients

In other words, although central agency people are prime clients who must be serviced for new budget, it is professional colleagues who are the prime, prime clients to be serviced in obtaining resource reallocation and increased professional degrees of freedom. In this sense then, students are not prime clients of the educational system or its components. Students are tertiary clients in that professionals need students to justify budgets and to be sincerely practised upon, but it is not necessary to demonstrate clear student benefits. Apparently all that is necessary to drive the system is that students come in large numbers and remain, and that prime clients believe. As long as students register and remain, the university gets its basic income unit per student.

In summary, it appears that because it is difficult or threatening to specify clear benefit indices, and because it is not necessary to do so in order to obtain resources and practise favorite technologies, attention and energy are devoted to other ways of justifying resource inputs and

professional practices.

The Cold War

Because of the lack of clear benefit data, the providers of the resources on the one hand and the professionals on the other have no common ground on which to meet, and they end up in opposing camps, fighting over questions that are relatively clear. The resource providers fight for controlling resource inputs and the professionals for increasing them--not on the basis of program benefit data but on the basis of available funds. Also, in the absence of program benefit data, resource providers fight for increased "busyness" on the part of the professionals and the professionals fight for increased degrees of freedom to practise their favorite technologies sincerely. Although under present circumstances they can't keep score in terms of student benefits, they can keep score in terms of who is winning on issues of cost control and issues of professional degrees of freedom. The central administrators settle for sophisticated costing models and measures of professional "busyness", while the professionals settle for professional degrees of freedom, and strong control over the yardsticks to be used in evaluating professional effectiveness.

Is it really impossible to generate meaningful, yet broad, benefit models and indices for those segments of health and educational systems which now have none? It is not impossible, since some promising starts have already been made (Astin and Panos, 1969). While it is not impossible to design improved

benefit analysis systems, it is improbable unless significant resources are committed to the task, and unless the resource providers and the professionals agree to co-operate on this task, even though they remain friendly opponents on some aspects of budget control and professional degrees of freedom. If, however, as is now the case, cost-benefit analysis and program planning and budgeting are seen as providing ammunition for the central administrators, to be used in cost control and tight restrictions on professionals, is it really surprising that the professionals fail to co-operate? It is perhaps this lack of co-operation and trust, rather than the technical complexities, that account for the rather dismal showing of cost-benefit analysis in areas of public policy, health and education (Fielden, 1969; Wildavsky, 1969; Lawrence et al, 1970).

De-escalating the Cold War

There is no doubt that improved benefit analysis can be done by central agencies, without the co-operation of the professionals concerned, merely by committing significant resources to the task. Such studies could be used to capture the attention, if not the affection, of the professionals and perhaps stimulate them to shift some of their resources into benefit analysis. Also, the results of benefit studies by central agencies could be used to help make decisions on resource allocation, which again would serve to capture professional attention. However, while it is no doubt necessary to capture their

attention, without their willing co-operation some benefit studies cannot be done, or can only be done superficially. Furthermore, without the co-operation of the professionals, how likely is it that those now practising will change their practice to meet the spirit of the findings, rather than merely going through the motions of meeting new resource and practice restrictions, or merely working to rule?

Furthermore, as long as the cold war continues, central agency influence remains essentially limited to having a say only about how new budget is allocated. This is peanuts compared to the established operating budgets of large departments and institutions, and these remain virtually under the control of the professionals. Remember, too, that professionals for the most part are sincere. They believe in many of their practices and technologies and so are prepared to fight for them when attacked, although willing to re-examine them under certain conditions.

It should, of course, be pointed out that central agency personnel who preach the necessity of cost-benefit analysis and P.P.B. (Program Planning and Budgeting) are the last to apply it to their own operation. Mutual trust and co-operation between what until now have been two cold-war camps will be enhanced to the degree that both sides demonstrate they are prepared to play by the same rules. Not only must they have each other's attention, but, following this, a phased coming

together to develop benefit indices of mutual interest, starting with aggregate data but restricting the distribution of institution or department specific data to the specific institution or department. For example, it is necessary to develop and publish benefit indices or standards for universities and for specific agencies within them, whether academic departments or service agencies like counselling centres. It is also important to publish comparative data indicating the range of differences in meeting these standards. But, initially at least, it is probably unwise to publicly identify specific institutions or departments. In this way, they are not forced to commit resources to defensive actions but rather can commit those same resources to modifying their programs, practices, and technologies in directions likely to increase program effectiveness and their own sense of accomplishment. Failure of institutions or professional groups to respond constructively in a reasonable time could be countered by publicizing program effectiveness data and applying significant resource curtailments.

Few are naive enough to believe that fights over budget and professional degrees of freedom will not continue. Nevertheless, by gradually developing benefit data of mutual interest, even if crude and of an aggregate nature initially, some of the fights will become negotiations in which resources are allocated and practices modified because an increasing number of people are likely to benefit--resource-tap-administrators,

professionals, and even students. (It is clear that general policies do not necessarily imply benefit indices, but benefit indices do imply policies. Therefore, if focussing on benefit indices does nothing more initially than clarify policies and priorities, we will be in a much better position for rational planning and general resource allocation.) Furthermore, the time is ripe for several reasons: the attention of all of us is being captured by the decreasing availability of funds and jobs; students are becoming increasingly effective in demanding that they be considered among the prime clients of the system; more and more professionals are realizing that a naive belief in their practices and technologies is becoming increasingly more difficult to defend not only in the minds of others, but in their own as well. Actions speak louder than words and so it is encouraging to see counsellors placing increased emphasis on "outreach" programs where they move out of their offices to become integral parts of natural student and faculty groups. Not only does this increase the probability of delivering a more effective client-relevant service, but it also increases the probability that counsellors will receive continuous feedback as to which of their activities are meeting student client needs.

Unless we can develop benefit models and indices of mutual interest and relevance, particularly under current economic

conditions, the cold war will get hotter and we will all end up knowing that a university education costs less than it used to but we still won't know what it's worth.

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THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE COUNSELLOR

Counsellor's Role

The college counsellor regards himself as a general consultant to the staff, administration, and students -- mediating in disputes, providing in-service training to instructors, conducting orientation seminars, and helping to improve the general academic program and learning environment. His major responsibility, however, lies in the provision of educational, vocational and personal counselling. From an existential point of view, he is concerned with helping students lead more productive and satisfying lives, assisting them in achieving a sense of personal identity, and aiding them in developing better decision-making skills and the adoption of more effective life styles. Although he is often involved in teaching and providing remedial instruction in reading or study techniques, the counsellor is reluctant to view himself solely as an academic instructor. He is a provider of information, varying all the way from data on specific careers, test results and financial aid to the agencies and resources in his community which can be used to assist his students. Research, evaluation of counselling effectiveness, and curriculum assessment are major interests of many counsellors, but scarcity of time and staff shortages cause these goals to be relatively low on their list of priorities.

Students' Problems

There are many issues or reasons which cause a student to come to the counselling unit for assistance. For convenience, they can be categorized into three major areas:

(a) Academic Problems

- poor attendance
- lack of motivation or commitment to a course of study
- failing grades
- pre-admission interviews
- desire to switch into an entirely different program of study
- "hassles" with a teacher
- revision of timetable in order to accelerate progress or decrease student's load
- improvement required in study and examination-writing skills
- clarification needed in understanding educational alternatives available following graduation
- relationship with sponsoring agency
(Department of Manpower and Immigration,

Workmen's Compensation Board, Vocational Rehabilitation, etc.).

(b) Vocational Problems

- exploration of vocational goals and career alternatives
- discussion of specific occupations
- preparation for interviews with employer
- test administration and interpretation to clarify job-related skills

(c) Personal Problems

- financial
- legal
- marital
- drugs and alcohol
- social and peer difficulties
- health
- family
- housing
- emotional and psychological
- immigrant adjustment difficulties

Counselling Activities

To meet these needs there is a common core of basic activities shared by all the counsellors in the community college network, but there are also very specific tasks

which vary from institution to institution. Thus, all counsellors provide both individual and group counselling, establish and maintain extensive educational and vocational files, and engage in some form of administering, scoring, and interpreting test results. They all serve as a referral source, directing students to another individual or department within the institution, and arranging for appointments with external agencies (Welfare, Manpower, family physicians, etc.). General administrative duties consume much of their time, involving counsellors in several activities they believe to be of questionable value in furthering their image and role as counsellors. Among these are hall and lunchroom monitoring, scheduling of classes, preparing timetables, and seeing students for disciplinary interviews.

In addition to the above tasks, many counsellors are active in special projects -- such as setting up a 24-hour crisis centre, serving as an advisor to the Student Council, representing the college at civic and service organization meetings, addressing graduating high school classes and initiating "career nights" involving representatives from the community. They are often called in by the teaching and administrative faculty for case conferences, evaluation of students, policy meetings, and discussion of general staff affairs. Many counsellors develop cassette tapes on studying effectively, conduct seminars to develop skills in rapid reading, orient new students to the institution, and formulate

a variety of in-service training programs in relation to a particular need and their own special interest and skills (behaviour modification techniques, desensitization of examination anxiety, sensitivity training, etc.).

Tests Used By Counsellors

In the formulation of educational and career plans, standardized tests are often employed to enable the student to obtain more information about himself. The most common ones are listed below:

(a) Ability Tests

- Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (W.A.I.S.)
- Otis

(b) Interest Inventories

- Strong Vocational Interest Blank (S.V.I.B.)
- Kuder Interest Inventory

(c) Aptitude Tests

- General Aptitude Test Battery (G.A.T.B.)
- Differential Aptitude Tests (D.A.T.)
- A variety of reading and mathematics tests (Davis, Gates, Dominion)
- Stenographic Aptitude Test
- Computer Operator Aptitude Test
- Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Test
- School and College Aptitude Test (S.C.A.T.)

(d) Personality Tests

- Edwards Personal Preference Survey
- Mooney Problem Checklist
- Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (M.M.P.I.)
- Thematic Apperception Test (T.A.T.)

Most counsellors are sensitive to the issues of reliability and validity in their use of tests, and are very cautious in avoiding labelling students or categorizing them incorrectly.

Reference Materials

Counsellors consult a variety of resource aids to augment their professional skills. The major sources of information they refer to are the following:

- Dictionary of Occupational Titles (D.O.T.)
- Journal of Counselling Psychology
- Vocational Guidance Quarterly
- Counselling Psychologist
- Canadian Counsellor
- American Personnel and Guidance Journal
- Mental Measurement Yearbooks
- Occupational Monographs
- University and College Catalogues
- Directories of Community Services and Agencies

- Occupational literature and labour market data
- Student records
- Testing literature
- Counselling textbooks by Rogers, Glasser, etc.
- Professional colleagues, teachers, and other resource personnel

Socio-Economic Factors

There is an obvious recognition that the socio-economic background of the student plays an important role in the educational streaming, counselling and testing process, and in his choice of educational and occupational goals. Counsellors, however, were rather vague in describing how these variables operate or what could be done about them, although they were sensitive and knowledgeable that they exist. Most of the students attending community colleges come from lower-middle-class families with blue-collar affiliation, while a small proportion come from white-collar office and clerical backgrounds.

To cope with the diversity of backgrounds, especially in a city like Toronto, some colleges have instituted a flexible credit system to enable the student to have access to a wider choice of subjects. This allows him to make up for past deficiencies caused by previous academic streaming which precluded him from taking courses which he now requires.

Counsellors are aware that tests are often culturally biased, and that unless the student is reasonably representative of the normative group upon which the test was standardized, there is a real risk of invalid interpretations being made. Past and present peer group influences are also important determinants which must be considered in any attempt to assess the impact of socio-economic background, and to the extent that the college represents society in miniature, this factor carries a great deal of weight.

Some counsellors suggest that the stress on technical courses offered by the community colleges allows students with deficient verbal skills to register and so, lower socio-economic groups and recent immigrants are not precluded from applying as they might be at a university. This factor plays a major part in the admission of students referred and paid for by the Department of Manpower and Immigration under its Canada Manpower Training Programme (C.M.T.P.).

Counsellors acknowledged that clients with poor verbal skills from lower socio-economic backgrounds were less likely to seek counselling where they were asked to openly discuss their problems. It was suggested that their method of coping with academic or personal difficulties might consist of acting-out behaviour, skipping classes and other overt activities. Recognizing this, several counsellors suggested better promotion of their services so that they could play more of a

preventative role rather than deal only with the student casualties. One counsellor summed it up this way:

"Our students are second-chance people with more obstacles in their path. They require more help."

Assessment of Counselling

When counsellors were asked to evaluate the quality of counselling in their colleges, opinion was about evenly split between rating it as "very good" and as merely "adequate". There were almost as many criteria offered as there were counsellors, but among the most frequently mentioned indices were the following:

- "In the final analysis, only the client, and not the institution, is in a position to judge the counsellor's effectiveness."
- "Do students return when necessary, or do they fail to show up for their appointments or seek help elsewhere?"
- "Are student/counsellor ratios, facilities, budgets, and support staff provided in the appropriate amount?"
- "Are community resources and college officials referred to when necessary?"
- "Do counsellors have sufficient time for their activities, and do they use their time wisely?"

- "Do staff members consult the counsellors and respect their advice?"
- "Are the counsellors knowledgeable and well-trained, and is there provision for professional development?"
- "Are student records, occupational information and resource material kept up to date?"
- "Has the counsellor developed rapport with the student so that he can help him make decisions and achieve success?"
- "Does the counselling unit conduct ongoing research programs to evaluate its effectiveness?"

In appraising the effectiveness of the counselling unit, therefore, a number of vantage points can be used. The counsellor, in assessing his services from the viewpoint of a student, believes they consider him a problem-solver -- helping them sort out educational, occupational and personal difficulties. Student attitudes, as perceived by the counsellor, vary from complete ignorance to indifference, through to amused tolerance, and all the way up to highly positive endorsement. Because of sparse advertising and public relations activities, and because many students remember their experience with their high school counsellor and link this to the college counselling unit, several

counsellors felt they had a great responsibility in altering this poorly-defined image. Although counsellors view themselves as trying hard and generally being available to students, they realize they do not always have the necessary answers, even though the majority of students who use their services, according to internal college surveys, believe they have been helped. Counsellors feel somewhat constrained in having to go along with the institution's overall philosophy, rather than being free to be objective in sorting out alternatives and pushing for changes within the college.

In terms of fitting into the general organization of the school, most counsellors felt there was fairly close collaboration with the teaching staff in the mutual endeavour of assisting students in achieving academic success. However, several counsellors pointed out that their activities were on the periphery rather than being an integral part of the educational philosophy of the institution. They indicated that many teachers were only concerned with teaching a particular course of study, rather than helping students attain qualities of maturity and self-reliance. Consequently, they turned to the counselling unit only when an emergency or crisis situation developed.

The point was raised several times that an ideal situation would involve having every teacher serving as a counsellor, but it was recognized that not every staff member is interested, capable, or has the time to assume this role -- hence the need

for a special counselling unit. Opinion was about evenly divided as to whether counsellors were seen as the advocates of the students or whether, as a division of the Student Affairs or Student Services Department, they were perceived as an extension of the administration -- having to support the institution's systems and procedures. Although most counsellors felt they were accepted as equal colleagues by the academic staff, they questioned why the college frequently paid them less and allowed them to take fewer weeks of summer vacation than the teaching staff -- an issue made more difficult to comprehend when most counsellors have graduate degrees at the M.Ed. or M.A. levels.

Most counsellors believe their president is satisfied with the scope and quality of counselling that takes place in his institution. Counsellors think their president sees them as co-operative and dependable, but "they should avoid making administrative decisions and spending too much time dealing with students' personal problems." The counselling centre is perceived to be a "good place for the verbose to receive needed attention", and "they divert complaints away from me." Thus, although counsellors believe their president is content with the work they are doing, several of them have a nagging concern that he really does not know what is involved in counselling and, therefore, could not genuinely appreciate (used in both of its interpretations) the nature

of their contribution.

In summary, it would appear from the questionnaire and interview responses that somewhat over half of the counsellors surveyed believe that their goals are not adequately understood or supported by their institutions. In attempting to clarify this matter, they generally indicated that there was insufficient meeting and planning by senior administrators, instructors, and counsellors to review functional objectives and procedures. They felt there was not the commitment necessary to gather and evaluate data which would shed light on the adequacy of their present counselling program. Many counsellors felt they were viewed as a "shrink centre", dealing with abnormals and incompetents, rather than as a positive, vital resource whose influence could pervade the whole institution. Several counsellors felt that the administrators only paid lip service to student personnel activities. That is, the college was only in the "business" of training -- "for teaching produces revenue, while counselling services consume it."

Symptoms such as insufficient staff, lower salaries than the teaching faculty, and a suspicion that counsellors undermine the teacher's relationship with his students are pointed to as indications that better communication, more adequate public relations, and more attention to counselling services policy formulation are required. Where there is

evidence that the college supports the counselling unit's goals, phrases such as "The administration is humanistically oriented," or "Our senior administrators are oriented towards 'people needs' -- it's not a factory," are employed.

Use of the Counsellor's Time

Time seems to be the most scarce resource available to the counsellor and so he is most concerned that it be used wisely. Survey results indicate the most productive activity engaged in by the counsellor is the time he spends in individual and small-group interviewing and consultations with students. Attendance at faculty and promotion meetings, working with teachers and parents to assist individual students, conducting seminars, maintaining contacts with community agencies and employers, and engaging in public relations activities are also tasks which counsellors regard as being of prime importance.

Clerical and general administrative duties are viewed as being the most inefficient use of the counsellor's time. Thus, supervising the lunchrooms and study halls, administering and scoring tests, completing forms and reports, and providing routine information that could be given by someone with less training are seen as activities which should be minimized. Two other distasteful tasks which were mentioned several times are having to serve as the "hatchet man" for the administration and having to continuously defend and define the role of the counselling unit.

Student/Counsellor Ratio

Lately, with increasing pressure to reduce costs on the one hand, and pressure to provide quality service with an adequate number of staff on the other, attention has been focussed on the counsellor/student ratio. These figures are difficult to assess precisely because of the confounding of part-time and full-time counsellors, the teaching and administrative duties assumed by the counsellors, and the use of group sessions. Moreover, the counsellor seems to have relatively little control over the number of interviews he conducts. Drop-ins, referrals by staff and outside agencies, and the responsive nature of his role combine to cause him to function much as a "fire department" -- that is, to be available on demand. The load is usually fairly evenly distributed by rotating counsellors on intake activities, but allowance is made to enable a student to request a specific counsellor.

Estimates as to the number of students who are actually seen by a counsellor during the year for an individual interview range from 1,000 to 2,000. It is very difficult, however, to interpret statistics in this area because some students are seen many times, others are seen in group counselling, some are seen for a cursory few minutes for a casual inquiry, while others are seen for an intensive period of perhaps one to two hours. As one counsellor expressed it, "This is the

statistics game and it is most unsatisfactory. The time and number is completely irrelevant; we do some of our best counselling in the halls and cafeteria." In general, however, many counsellors indicated they would see about eight to ten students per day with a formal guidance session lasting from 20 to 45 minutes. A ratio of one full-time counsellor to about 250-350 students was deemed to be acceptable, with amounts above this limit materially affecting the quality and scope of counselling.

Recommendations for Improvement

To conclude the survey, counsellors were asked to make suggestions to improve the counselling function in their college. The major recommendations are listed below:

- to develop and operate a work-orientation program in co-operation with employers, thus enabling the student to gain practical experience in addition to his academic preparation.
- to recruit volunteer counsellor aides or para-professionals who assume responsibility for doing clerical and administrative tasks.
- to establish a blitz program of individual interviews at the time of student registration to identify potential problems so that constructive preventative action can be undertaken.

- to spend more time in outreach activities, building up contacts and providing services to individuals and agencies in the community adjacent to the institution.
- to increase the number of counsellors to the level deemed necessary to reach the goals agreed upon by the president and the counselling unit.
- to provide adequate physical facilities for the counselling unit including a reception area, a group counselling room, storage cupboards, a testing room, a career library area and private sound-proofed offices, all located away from the registrar and college administrative section so as to avoid any association with this function.
- to establish a college-wide counselling policy and then leave it up to each institution to work out the details and procedures as to how to reach these objectives.
- to provide adequate funds and time for in-service training and professional development and ensure that counsellors are given the equivalent salary and leave as the teaching staff.

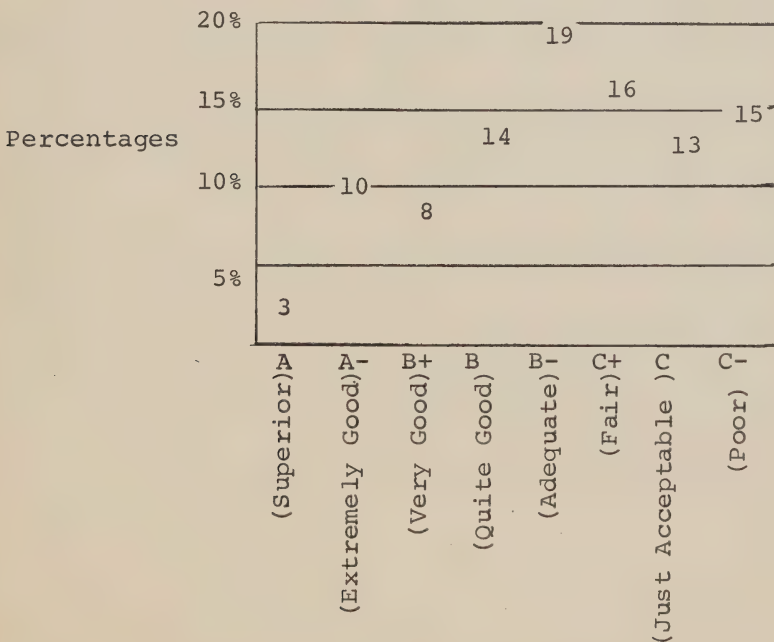
STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING SERVICES

Ninety percent of the students surveyed indicated they had had some type of contact with a counsellor, either in the form of an individual session or group guidance classes. Selection of courses, timetable scheduling and general academic issues were the main reasons, while vocational concerns and personal problems were discussed only about half as often.

About three-quarters of the students who had a personal discussion with their counsellor found it to be a positive experience in varying degrees. When asked in what way the guidance service had been helpful, students indicated that their counsellor had been knowledgeable and informed, he had really listened and seemed to take a personal interest in them as individuals and, finally, he was accessible and available when needed for help. Those students who were disappointed with the counselling they received mentioned a lack of the above three factors. Counsellors were described as lacking specific knowledge about university and college courses and requirements, and they were uninformed concerning different vocations and careers. Students regretted being treated as an academic record, as a specific IQ score, or as an average student. They resented being categorized and labelled, and felt that if the counsellor did not know them as individuals, then he could not help them with their problems.

Finally, students were disappointed in having to schedule formal appointments far in advance and then not having enough time to adequately explore their concerns. Positive adjectives used to describe a counsellor were "understanding", "interested", "helpful", "friendly", and "knowledgeable". The negative attributes most mentioned were "disinterested", "uninformed" and "incompetent".

Thus, the criteria by which students evaluate their counselling unit are pretty straightforward. If a counsellor is available and approachable, and if he has some expertise in the area of concern, and the student is able to establish a personal relationship with him, then the student regards this encounter as a positive and helpful experience. On this basis, students' evaluations of the quality of their counselling unit took this form:



COUNSELLING IN GOVERNMENT AND PRIVATE AGENCIES

Department of Manpower and Immigration

Scattered throughout the province are about 80 Canada Manpower Centres (C.M.C.s), utilizing approximately 1,000 counsellors. These counsellors principally offer employment counselling and attempt to help their clients clarify their occupational goals. When a client has the prerequisite skills and is ready for work, then the counsellor refers him to an appropriate employer who has notified the C.M.C. of an existing vacancy. Last year, close to 240,000 people were placed in full- or part-time employment.

Testing is also extensively used to provide an assessment of the client's educational background and an evaluation of his occupational skills. Last year, about 10,000 aptitude and interest tests were administered. If, through counselling, it is determined that the client could benefit from further education and training to enhance his competitiveness in the labour market, then the Department purchases from the province seats at the local community colleges. Last year, 7,000 places were made available to teach English to recent immigrants; 13,000 seats were allocated for academic upgrading; and 20,000 individuals benefitted by skill and trade training.

Frequently the counsellor has a client who has a marketable skill but who is living in a part of the province that does not require his particular capability. The Department's Manpower Mobility Programme allows the counsellor to provide the client with an amount of money to enable him to move to a more suitable area. During the last fiscal year, approximately 2,500 individuals received an exploratory grant, and about 1,800 clients received funds to physically relocate, thereby obtaining gainful employment.

A small number of clients require more intensive counselling, assessments, and remedial help than can be provided by the C.M.C. Under a cost-sharing agreement with the province, the counsellor refers the individual to Provincial Rehabilitation for these special services. About 350 people came under the auspices of this program last year.

Ontario Department of Labour

The Department of Labour, located at 74 Victoria Street in Toronto, has a number of resident counsellors who provide the following services:

- counselling apprenticeship applicants regarding the requirements for registration established under the Apprenticeship and Tradesmen's Qualifications Act.
- reviewing the applicant's past educational and work experience to determine the amount of credits they can apply towards his apprenticeship.

- advising applicants of employment opportunities and courses available at community colleges which are relevant to the trade they are learning.
- interviewing immigrant tradesmen, utilizing multilingual translators where necessary, and advising them of Ontario's Trade Standards.
- administering achievement tests to determine Grade 10 equivalent status (the minimum educational level necessary to enter an apprenticeship program).
- assessing apprentices and journeymen in the field who, for reasons of low education, health or language problems, etc., are unable to obtain their Certificate of Qualification in the normal manner by passing a written examination.

In addition to the activities performed by these resident counsellors, the Department of Labour has also established a Women's Bureau Career Centre. The Women's Bureau provides a counselling service in two locations in Toronto and operates in London, Hamilton, and Windsor on a part-time basis.

Dealing with 50 to 60 clients per month, the counsellors provide advice about the type of employment that would be suitable for a woman and the steps that might be required to obtain an appropriate job. Elizabeth Pie, one of the Bureau's counsellors, described her activities by stating: "In no sense are we involved in job placement. We offer a one-shot interview of about an hour to the woman who has been out of the job market for a while to help her determine if she has any

skills to offer an employer. We try to help her in terms of the background she provides the counsellor, her education, employment history and her goals."

During the interview, the counsellor attempts to clarify the women's vocational interests and her marketable skills. Where appropriate, the client is provided with information on relevant training programs available in her community. The counselling, which is available as a free service to any woman, regardless of educational level, does not include job placement or occupational testing.

If the client leaves the Bureau with a realistic career objective in mind, then the purpose for which it was established has been met.

Toronto Y.M.C.A. Centre for Counselling and Human Relations

The "Y", a non-sectarian agency located at 130 Eglinton Avenue East in Toronto, offers a comprehensive counselling service to "individuals who are having difficulties adjusting to high school, university or their present occupation, selecting a suitable career, deciding appropriate educational courses or maximizing their abilities, aptitudes, interests and personal traits in the working world." Typically, the client who comes is:

- an adult who is considering changing his occupation;
- a student who is confused about choices he must make in

relation to high school or university curricula;

- a woman who is about to re-enter the labour market after several years of concentration on domestic responsibilities;
- a post-hospitalized psychiatric patient who is trying to work out new life styles and occupational goals.

The fee for the educational and vocational services is \$90.00. Partially supported by the United Appeal, the "Y" has established a special fund to cover the costs of clients who cannot afford to pay anything or who can only manage a reduced fee. Approximately 1,000 clients were seen last year.

In addition to the above activities, the "Y" also offers a variety of other services to about another 1,000 members of the community:

- seminars dealing with "on-the-job relationships"
- life-planning programs
- study skills workshops
- sensitivity training and encounter groups
- marriage and personal counselling
- group therapy
- perceptual training
- industrial job testing
- organization consultation

Jewish Vocational Services (J.V.S.)

J.V.S., located at 74 Tycos Drive in Toronto, provides, on a non-sectarian basis, educational and vocational counselling, job placement, and vocational rehabilitation services.

(a) Educational and Career Counselling

The major goal of this program is to help the individual better understand himself in terms of his interests, abilities and personal needs so that he can more effectively deal with his educational plans and the world of work. Following an initial interview with an intake worker, the client participates in five or six testing and counselling sessions which are geared to his unique needs and personal situation. Professional staff have qualifications at the Masters level in psychology, education, or social work. Subsidized by the United Appeal, J.V.S. offers its services for a fee of \$75.00, adjustable in amount and terms of payment to fit the client's financial circumstances. Approximately 300 to 400 clients were seen last year.

(b) Job Placement Program

Referrals to jobs are available as a free service to any member of the Toronto community. Approximately 50 per cent of the clients are recent immigrants who are unfamiliar with the Toronto labour market and who require information and guidance to obtain suitable employment. Clients represent the full

spectrum of occupations -- ranging from unskilled up to thoroughly trained professionals. Of the roughly 1,000 clients seen last year, about one-third were satisfactorily placed in gainful employment.

(c) Vocational Rehabilitation Centre

The vocational rehabilitation centre offers a short-term assessment (up to six weeks) and work adjustment training (up to 13 weeks) program. Clients are referred from mental hospitals, psychiatric clinics, social agencies, and the Provincial Vocational Rehabilitation Services Branch.

The workshop simulates an actual industrial and clerical work setting. Clients are paid wages and are exposed to realistic work standards. About 80 per cent of those successfully completing the program are placed in supplementary training institutions, designed to upgrade their occupational skills, or in competitive employment. The client pays no fee for this service since it is subsidized by the provincial and federal governments. Last year, about 400 clients were involved in this activity.

Private Practitioners and Professional Organizations

In many of the major cities in Ontario, there are a number of psychologists and social workers who are engaged in private practice offering educational, career and personal counselling to students and adults. Fees generally range from \$15.00 to \$25.00 per hour, with a complete vocational assessment costing

approximately \$150.00 to \$200.00.

Professional associations provide career pamphlets, speakers to address secondary school students, plus an opportunity for interested pupils to speak to a member of the profession to obtain first-hand concrete information.

APPENDIX A

CAREER GUIDANCE IN THE SCHOOLS

DR. G. COSGRAVE

A PROGRAM FOR CAREER GUIDANCE IN SCHOOLS

Gerald Cosgrave

This paper outlines a program for assisting elementary and high school students in charting a course and making adjustments needed during transition stages in their development. The program is based on vocational development as it occurs without intervention and seeks ways of enhancing this development rather than substituting artificial procedures. It is in tentative form only. If viewed favorably, inquiry should be made to determine whether it is acceptable to students and counsellors and to work out details needed for its application.

Vocational development

1. Selection of a program of study or an entry occupation is an outcome of a process of development which extends over a number of years, not something which occurs at a particular point in time.
2. As the child advances from early childhood through adolescence he makes a number of choices which have an important bearing on choice of career. These choices include high school program, courses, subject preferences, time spent on various subjects, leisure activities, level of achievement striven for, friends. Each of these choices tends to exclude some future possibilities and to activate others.

3. Choices are intermeshed with a broader personal development which includes a growing understanding of self and of opportunities as well as increasing competence in making decisions.
4. Development of a self picture is aided by trying out various roles in school courses, summer jobs, leisure activities. The student discovers some roles which he is able to play well and with satisfaction. As a result of these try out activities, self views are confirmed, modified, or revised. After a series of reorganizations the self view becomes more stable although some changes continue to occur.
5. As the self picture becomes clearer the youth also acquires a knowledge of occupations and educational opportunities. During elementary school and even before attitudes to work begin to take shape although there is little concern about a personal career. During high school young people enter a period of exploration in which they show new interest in adult work for the standpoint of planning a personal career. In part, this interest is a search for a place in society where persons like oneself are needed. In part, it is a question of how to cope with the new tasks which will be encountered. For some it becomes a critical rejection of the present educational and work systems with resolve to drop out, change the system, or find a viable alternative.

6. Parallel with these developments is an increasing readiness to make for oneself decisions on matters which affect his life.
7. The individual searches for opportunities which are compatible with his self picture - fields which permit him to be the kind of person he is or wants to be. He may express a series of choices as various factors emerge in the self picture, perhaps interests first, later abilities, then values, and eventually realistic concerns. Final choice is a compromise between personal needs and reality.
8. Whether he is ready or not, our culture requires a person to decide on one course of action or another at certain points in his development. The system requires proximate choices to be highly specific but more distant ones to remain tentative. In any case, proximate, intermediate, and distant decisions are not made independently. Any single choice bears some relation to both antecedent and consequent choices. Pupils specify proximate decisions (schedule next year), crystallize those a little more distant (whether to attend university or not), and explore and hold tentatively even more distant ones (which university or which entry job). This framework slides along from year to year as a series of vocationally relevant decisions is made.

9. When a youth enters a new work or study environment, he encounters a number of tasks related to his development. He must learn the expectations held of him by a variety of people, expectations which may be ambiguous or conflicting. He will have to bring about some changes in himself to conform a little more closely to expectations. He must also reach a decision as to whether the job is compatible with his views of self and whether discrepancies can be absorbed. Later, he will realize that to get anywhere he will have to take steps to build a career. In the long run, he will face the tasks of maintaining the level he has reached and, in due course, tapering off and planning for retirement.
10. Variations in career commitment may be recognized. For some individuals commitment seems to be based on values - they love their occupations because they embody ideals such as truth, beauty, justice, helpfulness which they hold very highly. There is some evidence that these people are more dedicated to their tasks, enjoy their work more, and experience more happiness and peak periods.

Progress in career development may help a youth in several ways. Having a career plan or just knowing that there are compatible roles in society can relieve anxiety and help him to feel more sure of himself. The tasks he is doing both in and out of school acquire added significance because they are seen as contributing to his goal. The goal helps to shape his development, making him more alert to opportunities

and directing his growth towards the values, attitudes, and standards of the group which he hopes to join. When a choice point arrives, he makes decisions readily on his own. Later, career development helps the person in coping with developmental tasks he will encounter on the job.

When a student approaches a choice point with limited career development, he is likely to be anxious. His choice will be determined by the small range of opportunities he knows, what friends are doing, the jobs most readily available, conflicting advice from the side lines, or any attractive feature of an occupation without complete inquiry. Persons who decide in this way may be expected to flounder, change direction, or continue in their fields somewhat unhappily. It seems better to move forward along a road one has chosen with full awareness rather than be pushed by circumstances.

Many young people need discussion of education and occupations because they come from homes where unemployment has been the pattern and future goals are unspoken or unknown. Scores come from families where high school and university education are an exception. They must be motivated to think and plan for the same kind of vocational levels that we take for granted among middle and upper class children. Their poverty of experience must be replaced by understanding of the opportunities open to them.

These observations seem to justify some intervention to help young people as they form their attitudes towards work, move from familiar to unfamiliar conditions, and make choices whose consequences they can not foresee.

Guidelines for a career planning program

The development process outlined above offers some implications for planning a career guidance program. These plus some independent suggestions are combined in the following guidelines:

1. It should be recognized that career is an important aspect of overall development which has its own understandings and procedures, hence, requires separate consideration both in devising a program and training of counsellors.
2. The program should seek to enhance the natural process of development rather than to substitute an artificial process. Consequently, where artificial devices such as tests or computer are introduced their roles should be to supplement some phase of the overall development, not to completely substitute for that phase or to become the basis for a program in themselves.
3. Specifically, the program should aid the development of attitudes, understanding, and skills which enable the student to make career decisions and adjustments for himself.
4. With regard to timing, necessary development should occur well in advance of choice points and entry into new environments in order that young people will be ready to cope with these tasks when they occur. The process may well begin in early elementary school grades and should certainly extend to the final year of high school. It

should be continuous rather than sporadic providing some vocation related experiences at all grade levels.

5. As far as possible, the program should use group procedures, informational media, and other self help techniques, both because of the values they have and their economy. Nevertheless, students who face special obstacles in career development may require personal help early in the program. Those who approach choice points without adequate choices will also require intensive individual help.
6. Early stages of the program will be concerned with attitudes toward work and a general understanding of work life, later stages with shaping a personal career.
7. The program should recognize the right of a student to be critical of conventional alternatives and provide opportunity for expression of these criticisms. It should encourage critical students to explore ways of contributing to improvement of the system as well as to become acquainted with alternative possibilities.
8. Students should be encouraged to consider possible destinations when they choose an educational program. The program should facilitate specificity of proximal choices and flexibility in more remote ones. Students should not be pressed to express choices before they are needed or the student is ready. Progress should be assessed in terms of developing readiness, not crystallization of choice.

9. In addition to recognizing alternatives and making choices among them, the program should help students prepare to cope with the new environment when it is entered. Because it is concerned with occupation, broadly a matter of how we occupy our time, consideration should be given to planning the use of leisure time, both for relaxation and development. Leisure planning is particularly important today when the work week is dropping.
10. Young people are influenced in their career development by a variety of persons. For example, attitudes of teachers and parents towards work may influence children. Consequently, the program should involve more persons than the counsellor. Perhaps teachers and parents could both help and be helped. Other sources of help include representatives from various work organizations, groups such as scouts, churches and YMCA, and communication media such as newspapers and television. The ideal would be to coordinate these influences into an integrated program.

A program in harmony with these guidelines is outlined in subsequent sections.

Objectives at Different Stages of the Program

Grades 1-6: Understanding work life and basic attitudes towards work

These may be crucial years from the standpoint of establishing an interest in occupations and basic attitudes towards work. Goldie Kaback, New York University, reminds us that children show a natural curiosity and excitement about occupations. They are not in the least interested in status, or ability to carry on the work, or the training needed. In play all occupations are of equal importance to the child; he has not yet learned about social status. So far as he is concerned he can do anything - drive a tractor or a space-ship or climb the highest peaks with the greatest of ease. What interests the child is the nature of the work and younger children love to act out to get the feel of the occupation. The child's natural curiosity and enthusiastic acceptance of various roles provides the basis for developing a dynamic relation with occupational life. Miss Kaback has demonstrated with a fascinating series of projects just how this development can be fostered at each elementary grade level. Sample projects follow:

Kindergarten - A class was asked to draw pictures of "people who work in our school". The majority of drawings were of teachers and principal. Stimulated by the teacher the children began to examine the duties of other personnel (maintenance, lunch room,

nurse, policeman on corner, delivery men) whom they later visited.

When another class was asked to draw "what I would like to be when I grow up" they produced sketches of spaceman, baseball player, nurse, doctor, teacher, cowboy. Then they played a game in which each child imagined living in a community where all adults were employed only in these occupations. After lengthy discussion the class concluded that many other workers were also important members of the community, for example, shoe repairman, barber, dentist, refuse collector.

A construction worker from a nearby project came to the school to tell the children what he did after they observed him at work one afternoon. He showed them how to keep a picture record as different floors were added to the building.

First grade - Children noted various types of business on their way to school and discussed jobs of people who worked there.

Second grade - To show the interdependence of workers the teacher had the children play the role of a family that paid for a doctor's visit. Another scene showed where some money later paid to the nurse was used to pay for groceries. Then the grocer paid the delivery man for bringing supplies to his store and the latter's wife used the money to buy shoes for her children.

Members of the class were asked to act out roles suggested by their surnames - Taylor, Baker, Tanner, Smith. Those whose names did not lend themselves readily to occupations adopted what they felt were congruent roles - Goldstein made jewellery, McGregor played the golf pro. The project led to a discussion of where surnames come from.

Children reported on occupations of their mothers. One girl said "My mother does nothing - just stays at home". This suggested that children observe the work of their mothers and describe the different roles involved - nurse, chauffeur, cook, dressmaker, buyer, waitress. A role formerly taken for granted took on new proportions.

The Career Development of Children Project directed by Dr. Ronald W. Stadt, Southern Illinois University, has as its goal to schematize a conceptual model and supporting literature that will provide guidelines and give impetus to career development programs for elementary school students. The project was stimulated by the fact that the direction of occupational education is moving towards more concern for career development rather than specific job training. The Advisory Council on Vocational Education (U.S.) has recommended that occupational education should begin in elementary school with a realistic picture of the world of work. Occupational education should be conceived as a pyramid offering a broad base of exploratory experiences narrowing to a

decision point as the student acquires appropriate preparation for educational or occupational choice.

The operational task of the project is one of designing behavioural descriptions which will encompass the "developmental tasks" related to career, placing them at appropriate developmental levels, and designing learning experiences to enable each individual to successfully cope with the demands of each student, as he proceeds through school, to learn about self and world of work at higher levels of specificity.

Willa Norris has summarized the literature on presentation of occupational information in the elementary school (Occupational Information in the Elementary School, Don Mills, Science Research Associates, 1963). She presents an outline for a K-6 occupational information program which is reproduced here as a tentative possibility and an illustration of the gradually expanding scope of content:

Kindergarten - The child learns about work activities of his mother, father, and other members of his household.

Grade 1 - Work in the immediate environment: home, school, church, neighborhood.

Grade 2 - The community workers who protect and serve the child as well as workers in familiar stores and businesses in the community.

Grade 3 - The expanding community with emphasis on transportation, communications, and major industries.

Grade 4 - The world of work at the provincial level.

Grade 5 - Studies broaden to cover the industrial life of the nation, major industries of various sections.

Grade 6 - The entire western hemisphere, life in Canada contrasted with life in South America and United States.

Grades 7-8: Preparing for transition to high school

At this stage attention will be given to preparing students for the transition to high school. Included will be an understanding of the optional high school programs, the destinations to which they lead, and how to choose among them.

Vocational destinations can be considered only in a very general way because students are not yet fully ready to make decisions in this field. Emphasis will be on the broad pathways to which high school education leads: university; college of arts, science and technology; or direct entry into work combined with continuing education. Students will also be helped to appreciate the value of new education, understand how to use the new opportunities effectively, and how to deal with difficulties which students often encounter as they enter the new environment.

Activities: class discussions, work book, visitors from high school and subsequent programs, visits to these institutions, individual discussions with counsellor and parents, group discussions with former students of the school now attending high school.

Grade 9: Model for career planning

This stage seeks to give the student a model for rational behaviour in the face of uncertainty. It is concerned with the following tasks:

- developing interest and concern for planning one's personal career.
- understanding the developmental nature of this planning and what is required at each stage.
- acquiring a general scheme or rationale for making life decisions.
- acquiring an organized way of thinking about occupations and gathering information about them.
- understanding some significant work differences between people and how to develop a clear self picture.

Activities: discussion, work book.

Grades 10, 11, 12: Building one's resources and moving towards choice

The plan for career development acquired in grade 9 is now put into operation. Activities lead to an expanding view of opportunities, a firm appraisal of self, eventually a selection of options and a gradual reduction in their number approaching a single choice.

Grade 10 - Self study: analysis of one's expectations and resources. Horizons: broadening acquaintance with opportunities.

Grade 11 - Horizons: continued broadening acquaintance with opportunities. Options: selection of options commencing a narrowing process.

Grade 12 - Analysis: detailed study of options and gradual reduction in their number culminating in choice of one.

Activities: The program shifts from classes to self directed activities. Students work in a Career Laboratory which has available printed materials, tapes, films, tests. They work individually on their own schedule for required amounts of time on projects, their efforts being recorded in work and log books. Once a month they meet with a group whose members may be other students having similar interests. The counsellor is present at these meetings only as a resource person. Also once a month the group has a visitor who may be a representative from an occupation, a parent, a teacher speaking about careers in his subject field, or there may be a visit to a work place or educational institution. Tests are available for those who want to use them.

Grade 12 or 13: Terminal planning

These activities follow reduction in the number of alternatives leading to tentative choice. For students leaving high school at the end of grade 12 they must be carried out during this grade. For those who plan to continue, tasks of this stage may be left until grade 13:

They include:

- Reality testing the choice: This may involve a visit to observe the work, a one day or one week try out in the occupation or related work, and psychological tests.

- Specification: Working out details of preparation and specialization within the selected field.
- Preparing for transition: Becoming acquainted with the setting to be entered, how to use its opportunities effectively, and coping with difficulties which entrants often encounter.

How to Aid Vocational Development

In addition to viewing vocational development as passing through successive stages which can be related to school grades, attention must be given to how this development is to be mediated. The program seeks to aid development in three life areas which are related to career: self understanding, understanding the environment, planning and decision making. Some indications of the general approaches to be followed in each area are presented. These statements are far from complete and extensive study would be needed to map the area in full detail.

Self understanding

Throughout the program there is an effort to enhance self understanding. In part, this understanding is concerned with the student's expectations from work based on his motivating forces including needs, interests, and values. Sometimes the term values is applied to all three of these attributes - any aspect of work which is important to the person.

The task is to make these elements and potential conflicts among them explicit. After exercises and discussions to help in understanding the full significance of terms, a student will try to identify a limited number of values which are important to him. These become guides to choice. Another problem in this area is whether there is too much conformity to some culturally selected values.

A second area to be explored is that of resources for meeting work requirements - abilities and work traits. A student's expectations indicate the probability that he will find certain endeavors satisfying. His resources indicate the likelihood that he will gain entry and be successful in the endeavor. Expectations must be considered first. What does it matter if a student can be very successful in field X if it holds little attraction for him?

In both kinds of assessment most counsellors would like students to be less dependent on tests. These should be introduced only after students have made a genuine effort to assess themselves in other ways. Expecially, students should be encouraged to participate in a variety of activities and try out a variety of roles in which they may evaluate their performance both from the standpoint of satisfaction and success. Evaluations made by other students and perhaps expressed in bull sessions may be significant, especially with regard to social qualities. Group discussions about ways in which people differ and different roles they play

may sharpen self observation. Attention should be directed to strengths in very specific areas which are sometimes concealed by global evaluations.

Gardner Murphy indicates a difficulty in discovering individual strengths. There is a constant contention between what is unfolding from within and the culture which pressed certain tasks on the person and evaluates him in terms of performance on these tasks. Yet the mind works best in following its own bent. If we want to learn something about these bents, we should let the student roam in unchannelled, non-competitive activities such as hobbies. If it is impractical to provide a big open space of time, at least we can start with an analysis of the areas in which activity flows spontaneously, noting what the individual is potentially curious about and seeks out.

When tests are used, scores must be made meaningful to students. Frequently reporting scores has negligible and sometimes negative effect in changing perception of self and goals. To make scores meaningful they must be related to the student's experiences and what he already believes about himself. The counsellor must know what to do and which path to follow when test and life evidence conflict.

To secure full benefit from self assessment, its use should not be limited to choice but extended also to consideration of the possibilities of self improvement. Which attributes should be selected for development and how does one go about the task? These questions make interesting and helpful topics for discussion.

Understanding environment

A second function of the program is to mediate information about environments, their opportunities and what each requires of its members. There should be a gradual broadening of information about educational and occupation settings and activities over a number of years followed by a narrowing process coming to a focus in choice.

For the most part, students show little enthusiasm for the materials or methods now available for this purpose. Perhaps this is not surprising in view of the fact that a negligible amount of research has been directed to understanding and improving the information process. Moreover, preparation of materials is largely in the hands of journalists, advertising workers, and individuals working in the occupations described.

Dependable and interesting means for mediating information about environments should form a very important part of the guidance program. Not only would they meet student needs better than at present but they would also relieve the counsellor of impossible demands on his time and range of knowledge.

To obtain the maximum value from information materials studies are needed to establish guidelines which will adapt them better to the needs and preferences of students. To realize how little consideration has been given to designing them in this way one only needs to examine a few university calendars. One finds large amounts of prime space given to

history of the institution, lists of the staff members, regulations of the institution. In contrast, what a prospective student wants to know is what programs are offered, the general nature of each, its significance for society, where it will lead him, how long it takes, entry requirements and cost.

One model for improvement is presented by Hoyt, Iowa State University, who worked with high school students who planned to enter vocational training on graduation. He found the questions these students would like to have answered about training programs, secured answers from students in these programs and in subsequent occupations, made the information available in booklets, each dealing with a specific program in a specific institution. Likewise, the California VIEW program was preceded by a study of students' needs. The content of materials is based on this survey with items arranged in order of their importance to students.

There are indications that some school counsellors tend to avoid career counselling either by reason of preference or pressures in other directions. This being the case we must look to other methods than counselling to provide much of the help needed for planning. The need for this emphasis is also attested by the high cost of individual counselling and the impossibility of providing in a limited number of interviews the full range of information and method which individuals need. Consideration may well be given to recorded

educational, occupational, together with self study and decision making material, as a supplement to individual counselling or a partial substitute. If increased reliance is to be placed on recorded materials, improved techniques and materials must be developed and put into operation.

A number of programs for the study of occupational information systems have recently started in the United States. Some are concerned solely with computer assisted programs but the fascination of this device should not close our eyes to the possibility of other approaches. (See Vocational Information Processing Systems: a Survey, P.A. Perrone and R.S. Thrush, Vocational Guidance Quarterly, Vol. 17, 1969, p. 255-266)

Several directions which improvements might take can be suggested. There might be more emphasis on psychological data such as attitudes and values of workers, status considerations, job anxieties, patterns of interaction with other workers and the public, ways in which personal needs are met. Present emphasis is on economic data such as duties, training, earnings, benefits. Material could well be more realistic providing negative as well as positive information. For example, taped interviews with university students should include statements from dissatisfied as well as from satisfied students. More stress might be placed on non-university occupations, in part to ensure that those who plan to enter university have an opportunity to become acquainted with alternatives before they commit themselves. There is evidence

that this kind of information is wanted. Materials designed to aid scanning and analysis are needed at different stages of a youth's vocational development. The distinction is not clearly made and there is a dearth of good materials of scanning type. A great deal of valuable information which could be of value to students is hidden in social science literature and needs to be brought into daylight. More information is needed about unconventional and unusual occupations. A news letter might prove useful because it presents information in digestible doses, has a news emphasis, is a personal possession, comes regularly, is permanently and readily available through filing in a ring binder.

Many presentations will be concerned with occupations or educational programs either individually or in various groupings. Others will cut across occupations and programs to concern themselves with broad aspects of human endeavor such as varieties of social roles in work, women's work roles, critical examination of the way in which work is organized and how it may be improved, change and how to face it, ways of working for change in society generally or shaping one's own environment with like minded persons, why people work, how they get distributed to various occupations, the nature of careers, careers of graduates of the student's school, contributing to society through one's work, respect for all levels of work, using summer or part time jobs to advantage. Some of these topics could well be used for discussion in the grade 9 program to develop an interest in careers.

An idea which can readily be put into effect is a feed back file. This consists of one page reports from graduates of the school now attending various universities, colleges, or working in occupations. The report describes aspects of their life and work. These reports give a picture of various environments in a way which may be more meaningful than standard materials.

Aside from content and format, where information is located, how it is classified in relation to students' needs, and how students may obtain personal copies are important considerations. It would be more readily accessible in the Career Laboratory or the school library where the student will come in any case and may be attracted by the display. Information should be organized in a way which relates it to student needs. Example:

- Primary classification in terms of student destinations: university bound, college bound, and work-study bound.
- Each destination may be broken down into educational programs and occupations.
- Each of the resulting six groups can be further divided into scan and analysis materials which the student will require at different times.
- Within each of the resulting twelve groups the most helpful references for beginning use may be marked with a star.

Some emphasis in use of career information materials deserve mention. One is the use of the materials for self discovery as well as for information. As the student explores, he projects himself into various roles and tries them on. In doing so, he discovers not only something about occupations but also about himself and what occupational factors are significant for him. Thus, there is no sharp division between self discovery and occupational exploration.

The project should also seek to ensure full exploration before choice. To relieve the anxiety of indecision a student may bring the exploratory process to an end prematurely when he encounters a field which on first sight looks attractive. He may need to explore other fields to know what he is rejecting, as well as to examine this one more fully before committing himself.

Recorded information certainly cannot bear the whole burden of the informational program which also requires contacts with people. There is need for involving a variety of persons in the process, not just the counsellor. Subject teachers may relate their fields to careers. Some parents may provide helpful information. Visitors from universities, colleges, and work establishments may contribute. So also may former students of the school. The program may also include meaningful experiences beyond school such as Scouts, YMCA, 4-H Club, church groups, summer jobs.

Career planning

In grade 9 the student becomes acquainted with an over all approach to career planning and sets a time schedule for his vocational development. These two items together direct his activities during the rest of the program. The rationale outlines a progressive development in which the student moves through a series of stages leading towards choice:

- a. Becoming concerned about career and assuming independent responsibility for goal delineation.
- b. Understanding oneself - delineating expectations and resources.
- c. Determining the range of one's choice freedom - what is possible in view of decisions already made, one's resources, and other factors.
- d. Selecting options - scanning a range of fields and selecting a few which look attractive on brief examination.
- e. Evaluating options - making a critical and analytical assessment of the selected options. Will the option be satisfying (relating it to expectations)? What are my chances of entering and succeeding in this field (relating the option to the student's resources)?
- f. Choice - willingness to take risks determines the extent to which returns from the occupation or chances of success will be emphasized in choice.
- g. Specification - determining details of preparation, specialization, and the like.

In customary presentations some of these steps are glossed over. For example, selecting options is usually dismissed with the statement that "they will emerge". In fact, specific suggestions are needed as to how and where to look for options. Similarly, each step needs to be expanded in presentation and should be accompanied by related projects which will help the student to move forward in his development.

In addition to descriptive statements and projects, a variety of aids may be used in developing the understanding and skills needed for each stage. Each aid introduced into the program must be clearly related to the stage of development which it is intended to facilitate. A few examples are shown below. Many more are available in the literature, especially in Robert Hoppock's, Occupational Information:

a. Freedom to make one's own decisions (part of stage a)

Students may be encouraged and given opportunity to expand areas in which they make their own decisions. In school they might be involved in decisions about dress codes, behavioural standards, grading policies, etc. At home they might be given greater freedom to make decisions on matters affecting them (Palo Alto schools).

b. Expanding value system and foreseeing consequences of choices (stages b and e)

Bocock's Career Game facilitates vocational development by having students work out the life of a fictitious student in terms of decisions about education, vocation, and leisure. Students become aware of the value systems of other students

who present alternatives they have not considered. They are forced to consider the consequences of various courses of action. Students are said to become excited about the game and to realize that a plan is necessary to come out where one desires.

c. Predicting success by actuarial method (stage e)

Palo Alto gathered data about decisions of seniors and these were related to variables that might be used for prediction. Experience tables were provided to help students estimate the probability of certain outcomes for some of the choices they might make. The object was to acquaint them with the strategy of evaluating several alternatives by considering probable consequences of each.

d. Computer suggested options (stage d)

The computer can do some things quicker, more completely, and more uniformly than counsellors can. One of these is to suggest options which are appropriate for a student to consider, the role proposed for the computer in Ontario schools. Here it can make a valuable contribution but, at the same time, its limitations must be recognized.

Among these limitations is (1) the fact that it is not apparent to the student how the computer's conclusions have been reached. He is asked to accept on faith. Because the hardware is much more impressive than the software, the faith may be greater than is justified.

Moreover, (2) the computer's suggestions are limited to

patterns which occur frequently in student development or to logical relations discerned by programmers. Often through their imagination and creativeness working on the data, clients have come to decisions not foreseen as possibilities by the counsellor. Presumably, they can do the same with the computer's suggestions because their perceptual patterns lead them to see things differently than the machine does. If the student is encouraged to explore environments rather than let the computer do it for him, he learns more about himself and the overall picture may well change in a way which leads to new possibilities not foreseen by the computer. In any case, (3) in order to reach a firm commitment a student should know what he is rejecting as well as what he is accepting, something the computer tells him only in small part. For example, Boston students aspiring to university, nevertheless, expressed an interest in learning more about non-professional occupations. These considerations suggest that the proper role for the computer is one of supplementing the normal career development process but not one of replacing any part of it.

e. Counselling (various stages)

Some students encounter special obstacles in themselves or in their environments which make it more difficult for them to progress towards career decisions. Improvement in these areas must be made before the person is ready to move forward in his development. These students should be identified early and will need individual counselling. Counselling

should be available to other students as requested or if progress is not being made. When choice is made an interview may be arranged to ensure that the student's plan is reasonable and that he has made a sufficiently broad exploration before crystallizing choice.

It is too much to expect that the program will bring all students to satisfactory decisions by the time they reach choice points. Those who have not developed goals by this time will require intensive and time consuming individual help. There is a question whether the school should be responsible for providing extensive help of this kind which may be regarded as going beyond the scope of an educational development program.

f. Assessing progress (all stages)

Progress in development should not be assessed by expression of choice but by growing readiness to make choices. Means for assessing progress from this standpoint should be developed in order to identify students who need help.

How May the Program be Implemented?

Personnel

The program requires staff members who are committed to the career field, have special knowledge and techniques related to it, and preferably have engaged in some work outside of the academic system even if only as observers.

If the schools recognize career development as an important educational task and arrange to free counsellors from other tasks in order to work in this area, many present counsellors will be ready to commit themselves to specialization in this field.

For the training of future counsellors, optional courses should be available in this field to prepare counsellors who will become specialists in career development. Recruiting university graduates with favorable undergraduate backgrounds for this and other forms of counselling could be greatly facilitated by arrangements to accept them as students in colleges of education for specialized training in counselling without demanding extensive background in a teaching subject. At the outset, it might be wise to develop methods of preparing career specialists at one teacher training centre. Because of its highly relevant undergraduate program in Human Resources Development and its excellent counselling service for university students, York University might be considered for this role.

A career development specialist might cover an area served by one high school and several elementary schools. He would assist elementary teachers in planning work projects, conduct activities related to transition to high school, and be responsible for the career program in his high school.

Cost of the program

It is not possible to estimate increase or decrease in cost compared with present outlay without knowing how much counselling time is now devoted to career planning. This information is not available to the writer.

In general, the program should be an economical one in that it emphasized group and self directed activities. Working at the high school level only, one counsellor could probably handle 700 students involved in various stages of the program. This estimate is based on using half of each day to meet with groups on an average once every two weeks. The other half day would be used for counselling, arranging speakers and visits, and planning.

Integration of the Career Development Program with other aspects of guidance

The understandings and skills developed in the Career Program are in many instances useful also in other areas of life. Understanding oneself, improving oneself, making decisions in the face of uncertainty have applications far beyond career planning. Thus, career planning tends to expand into life planning.

The basic principles of the program might also be applied in a program for life planning. One basic principle is that of developing readiness to cope with life problems in advance of their occurrence. Another is that of using group procedures, information media, and other self help procedures as far as possible. Both should minimize the need for individual counselling. Both are applicable to areas of life beyond career.

These considerations provide some basis for integration of career and non-career aspects of guidance. Similar procedures could be applied in both areas. Where appropriate, career topics could be dealt with in terms of their application to areas of life beyond career.

The concept of Life Skills Training developed by Stuart Conger for Project New Start in Saskatchewan is relevant here. The project has developed group methods with leaders' manuals to help students develop competence in coping with life tasks. It has met with considerable success and recognition. The term Life Skills Training may have considerably more appeal to students than guidance or counselling.

Resources development

In order to assist counsellors carrying out a Career Development or a Life Skills Program there must be some means provided to bring about an improved understanding of the role of occupational information in career planning and to develop effective methods of presentation and improved materials. The program would provide support for counsellors in the following ways:

- a. Conduct studies to determine the readiness of individuals of varying ages to receive and assimilate occupational information, their interests and attitudes in relation to work, the range and accuracy of information they now possess, the specific questions to which they seek answers, the methods of presenting information which they prefer and from which they benefit most. These studies would provide guidelines both to

the counsellor working directly with students and also to the resource worker for preparation of materials and techniques.

b. Select and creatively prepare materials of a variety of types - printed leaflets, microfilm, films, tapes, work visits, group discussions. The research studies mentioned above will provide guidelines for designing materials and methods. Models will be developed and evaluated by tryout. When effective modes of presentation are established, extended series will be prepared in this style for general use.

c. Techniques for presenting career ideas for discussion will be selected and developed.

d. For each stage of the program a syllabus will be prepared for use of the counsellor and a career planning manual with projects for use of students.

e. Means for measuring progress in career development will be devised.

A university provides an ideal setting for carrying out tasks of this kind. It can readily combine a creative approach with outcomes of research, it has a wide range of resources at its disposal, and it is free from restrictions on statements for publication often present in a government agency. York University is beginning a small scale program in this field, Project Search. With additional financial aid this project could be extended to serve a redesigned school Career Development or Life Skills Program.

The writer understands that Stuart Conger, who developed the Life Skills Program, will shortly complete his contract with the New Start Project. There is a possibility that he might be available to join Project Search which would provide a tremendous asset in developing resources for a new program.

APPENDIX B

COUNSELLING THE NEW CANADIAN

COUNSELLING THE "NEW" CANADIAN

As a prosperous western nation, living in an era of high mobility, we have become increasingly cosmopolitan as waves of immigrants arrive. Universities reflect this influx and we find on our campuses large numbers of first or second-generation new Canadians, or visiting foreign scholars. These students often experience difficulties in coping with university (and other) systems. Counselling centers must be cognizant of these unique problems and offer realistic services to assist these students.

One of the primary foci of difficulty is the family situation. A culture gap frequently isolates these students from their families. The students have been exposed to and internalized many of the mores and values of the Canadian culture, while the parents, typically residing in ghetto areas with other members of their ethnic group, cling to and are reinforced for clinging to the ways of the old country. A basic difference in opinion between parent and offspring seems to revolve around the issue of the amount of freedom young people should be allowed to have. This in turn may be related to child-rearing practices. With the Italian family, for example, Greenglass (1970) has reported that Italian parental values seem more adult-centered, emphasizing the child's conformity to adult standards while the values of American parents seem more child centered, emphasizing the child's own development and gratification. This difference has been associated with different socio-economic class-

membership for immigrant families, most of whom initially are members of the working class while much of the surrounding culture is middle class (Jones and Gerard, 1967).

At school, the children of immigrant families soon become acquainted with the permissive attitudes of some Canadian parents and expect similar behaviour from their own parents. This consequently leads to family friction, particularly in the areas of dating and peer group interactions (Allodi, 1969; Bojavic, 1967).

Some of the most severe problems stem from the role prescriptions for men and women. Many immigrant subcultures have well-defined, rigid specifications of behaviours that are appropriate for each sex. For example, an Italian father would become a laughing stock if he were to hang out the family wash and a woman mustn't date before marriage if she doesn't want to be thought of as promiscuous (Dotto, 1971). Some parents even discourage their female children developing friendships with other girls (Ibid).

On a simplistic level, the counselling center is of assistance to these new Canadians by offering standard services. Encounter groups are useful in that they bring these students into contact with other students experiencing allied problems. Individual counselling can be helpful to increase the student's understanding and awareness of the rationale for parental behaviour. Aiding the student to thread his way through the morass of registration procedures, petitioning regulations and red tape is a valuable

service since parents may not be able to assist in these areas, and the student often has no friends at University.

A well resourced facility could offer more elaborate programming to meet the needs of both the students and the parents. Crysedale (1965) has suggested that the meeting ground for the two generations would seem to be at a level of liberal thought which is brought about with education. A training programme, or series of encounter sessions, involving both parents and the young people, sponsored by the counselling center, might be a valuable beginning for the bringing about of more understanding if not liberalization. But such a programme is best operated by student volunteers, who are members of the ethnic group, but with access to the professional counsellors and other resources of the center. A programme of this type has been attempted utilizing a role playing technique (Nangini, 1971), with some success. Such a service would be useful not only to the students but to the community at large.

Increasing numbers of visiting foreign students may be found on university campuses. In some sense, the culture shock for these students is more severe than for the group described above. Typically, they are without family or friends - more anxious and self-conscious than most students. And they often have a serious language problem which militates against developing a friendship circle and in addition is academically debilitating. The York University Psychological Services Centre has initiated a programme to

assist these students to overcome their speech difficulties (Cohen, 1971). This programme has as its initial focus the teaching of English speech sounds. The programme has been successful to some extent in improving speech skills but perhaps more importantly it helps to alleviate student anxiety and opens the door for consideration of a host of culture shock, or personal problems. The counselling center, with the speech programme as the vehicle, has become the referral agency for these students both to the pertinent resources within the university, such as the writing workshop, and to outside agencies, such as second language courses. Another role of the counselling center might be the facilitation of the development of international clubs on campus which could serve to provide the foreign student with a friendship or peer group base.

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APPENDIX C

GUIDELINES FOR UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE
COUNSELLING SERVICES KIRK ET AL.

GUIDELINES FOR UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE
COUNSELING SERVICES¹

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Counselling services have existed on college and university campuses since the early 1930's. The last few decades have seen a rapid growth, with new counselling services springing into existence on even small campuses.

In order that psychologists generally, as well as those representatives of higher education who may be concerned, have some base from which to conceptualize, it has seemed desirable to spell out what such a counseling service may be. Guidelines for counseling service establishment and functioning were needed.

For 19 years, university and college counseling center directors have met annually to discuss professional and

¹Developed by the University and College Counseling Center Directors Task Force, of which the authors are the members. Barbara A. Kirk is the Chairman. The Guidelines were adopted in November, 1970.

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administrative matters. Out of this group came the task force that for better than a year worked intensively to develop this statement. It was built originally on a draft, "Guidelines for Canadian University Counselling Services," developed by a committee of the Canadian University Counselling Association chaired by Robert I. Hudson. The University and College Counselling Center Directors Task Force, working through physical meetings and correspondence, was aided by comments and reactions in writing and in group discussion by virtually all of its colleagues.

In November 1970, the Guidelines were officially adopted by the university and college counseling center directors. It is hoped that this statement will contribute to an understanding of counseling on our campuses, to its development, and to the maintenance of high standards in its functioning.

GUIDELINES

I. The Role of Counseling in the University

In recent years, there has been a growing concern in the university community for the development of services and programs to meet the personal and developmental needs of students. This concern runs concurrent with emphases on instruction and research, recognizing that every individual must meet certain basic personal needs in order to function successfully in a learning situation.

In working with students, the Counseling Service has two complementary functions: developmental and remedial. The developmental role is seen as helping all students, both relatively healthy and presently disturbed, adjust to and benefit maximally from the academic environment. The Counseling Service thus promotes student growth along a broad spectrum, with particular emphasis upon personal characteristics and interpersonal competencies. These include a positive yet realistic self-image, appropriate personal and occupational choices, and the ability to relate to others in meaningful and mutually satisfying ways -- in general, the ability to engage in a personally satisfying and effective style of living. The remedial role of a Counseling Service is to help students solve specific educational problems and to remedy academic skill deficiencies.

With the establishment of this concept, professional counseling ceases to be a peripheral function but is, rather, an integral part of the educational process. The Counseling Service, like any other department, requires professionally qualified individuals in sufficient numbers to provide the necessary services.

In addition to the provision of direct psychological services, Counseling Service professional personnel, by reason of their background and their extensive and deep contacts with students, are uniquely qualified to make valuable contributions to faculty, administrators, committees, and boards concerned with program development and general policy. Counseling Service staff should thus be involved in academic and

administrative planning and implementation in all aspects of student life. It is the Counseling Service's responsibility to make its qualifications known to students and staff through all appropriate means. Thus:

1. The availability of services should be made known to students using the modes and manner of communication most likely to promote student awareness.
2. Counseling Service staff members should also develop contacts throughout the institution further to interpret counseling programs and thus be of greater service to the total university or college community.

II. The Place of Counseling in the University Organization

In order for professional counseling staff to function in their special relationship to students, the Counseling Service should be an administratively autonomous unit. In this way, it can best serve the entire student population and faculty through appropriate direct and indirect psychological services. The Director of the Counseling Service should be administratively responsible to the President or one of his direct representatives.

It is recognized that administrative structures vary; under some circumstances, other organizational relationships may be more appropriate. It is important that the Counseling Service be perceived by students as independent from and, in fact, not beholden to medical, instructional, and disciplinary units. The key principle is that the Counseling Service be wholly free to best serve the students' needs.

III. Functions

Certain functions, such as those described below, have accrued to university and college Counseling Services. The specific functions are related to the nature of the institution and the needs of its students.

A major responsibility of any Counseling Service is to be alert to the changing needs of its university community. To be responsive to them, the Counseling Service must maintain an attitude of thoughtful experimentation and careful innovation: conceptual, strategic, and programmatic.

A. Services to Students

1. Developmental Services

Counseling and psychotherapy - To provide confidential assistance with educational, vocational, personal, marital, developmental, and social problems. This is done primarily through counseling interview, the use of psychological tests when appropriate to promote student self-understanding, and occupational and educational information as needed.

Group counseling and psychotherapy are also provided to help improve students' ability to communicate and to relate effectively to others and to examine personal values as well as other personal and educational matters.

Consultation regarding individual students as requested or needed with other campus offices is offered in the context of preservation of the student's confidential relationship with the Counseling Service. However, the Counseling Services should not be responsible for

administrative decisions about students. Consultations with parents, spouses, and public and/or private agencies that bear some responsibility for particular students may also be provided in the context of the preservation of the confidentiality of the counseling relationship.

2. Remedial Services

In addition to educational counseling, it is often desirable for the Counseling Service to help students assess and overcome deficiencies in educational skills. Improvement of techniques may include reading, writing, study, speech, and examination skills.

B. Services to Faculty and University Community

1. The Counseling Service plays an active role in interpreting students to faculty and staff. This may be done by serving on committees, by conducting research about students and their behaviour and the influence of faculty and the institution upon students, and by dissemination of the outcome of such research to the total community.
2. Provision of such advisory services as consultation, supervision, and/or in-service training upon request to aid faculty members, administrators, residence hall personnel, and other student personnel workers in working with students.

Similar services may be appropriately offered to staff and students in a variety of paraprofessional capacities.

3. Assessment of students, upon faculty or administrative request and with clear student concurrence, as an aid to student-academic decisions. This function must be carefully distinguished from assessment as a part of counseling, which is bound by the confidential nature of that process.
4. Participation in university program development in all aspects involving students, with particular reference to admissions, orientation, educational policy, etc.
5. Provision (where feasible) of counseling, psychotherapy, and/or testing services with or without fee to members of the university community other than students, as well as alumni and the public.

C. Training

1. Training of graduate students is an appropriate and desirable responsibility of the Counseling Service. However, the primary service functions of the agency must be maintained. Trainees and interns, and paraprofessionals, should be carefully selected, and closely and continuously supervised by experienced, specialized personnel. Cases assigned to trainees should be related to their current level of competency to insure quality service to students.
2. Participation in the selection and training of university staff and student paraprofessional personnel is also appropriate and desirable.

D. Research

An integral responsibility of the Counseling Service is to conduct research to determine the effectiveness of its services and to improve these services. This includes studies such as those on counseling outcomes, methods, instruments, techniques, and procedures.

In addition, the Counseling Service is in an especially good position, because of its close relationship with students and faculty, to contribute to studies of student characteristics and follow-up studies of student progress in various programs. These studies can help academic and administrative as well as student units in planning and developing policies and programs.

The Counseling Service can also consult with students or faculty who wish to conduct their own research on student characteristics or behaviour or the influence of specific programs on student development.

IV. Personnel

A. Professional Staff Members Employed

1. Professionals such as counseling and clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, psychiatric social workers, and others with appropriate training and experience perform the counseling functions. A Counseling Service which is primarily dependent upon trainees to provide service shall not be considered adequate.

2. Various specialists depending upon program offered, either regularly or on a consulting basis (e.g., consulting psychiatrists, consulting psychologists, occupational information specialists, attorneys, reading specialists, research specialists, etc.).

B. Status within the University

1. Counseling Service regular professional staff members holding doctoral degree or equivalent should hold academic rank, with all of the responsibilities, rights, and privileges of academic staff members, including tenure, sabbaticals, and membership or representation on university governing bodies.
2. Ranks may be held through joint appointment with an academic department or within the Counseling Service.

C. Size of Staff

To ensure adequate services, specific ratios for staff, both professional and clerical, should be established locally. They should be frequently reviewed in relation to enrollment, published surveys, services offered and other mental health and student services available on campus and in the community.

D. Qualifications

1. The Director should have:
 - a. Personal attributes that enable him to interact effectively with and to be well regarded by administrators, faculty, and staff as well as by students;
 - b. Background in higher education;

- c. Outstanding background and/or training in counseling psychology or clinical psychology as evidenced by an appropriate combination of the following: (1) a doctoral degree from an institution with the equivalent of American Psychological Association approval, (2) a substantial number of years' experience in an accredited institution, (3) state licensing or certification in psychology, (4) a Diplomate in counseling or clinical psychology awarded by the American Board of Professional Psychology.
- 2. Staff counselors should have a minimum of a Master's degree and substantial appropriate experience. Supervisors of counselors should have the doctorate or equivalent appropriate licensing as well as high quality experience.
- 3. All personnel, both professional and supportive, should have personal attributes appropriate to communicating and relating to the entire range of students and staff.
- 4. All staff are expected to adhere strictly to ethical codes of conduct of appropriate professional bodies, such as those of the American Psychological Association and the American Personnel and Guidance Association.

E. Duties

- 1. Director
 - a. Overall administration and coordination of Center and Counseling activities. With the staff, the Director develops and implements policies and philosophies of Counseling Service operation.

- b. Coordination, recruitment, training, supervision, development, and evaluation of professional and supportive staff members.
- c. Preparation and administration of budget.
- d. Provision of counseling information to students, faculty, and the general public.
- e. Involvement in university policy formation and program development, particularly when understanding of reactions to stress situations and personal problems is important.

2. Professional Counseling Staff

- a. Counseling and other professional service responsibilities (e.g; supervision, unit administration, assessment, etc.).
- b. Options, according to personal preference and agency policy and needs (e.g.; teaching in an appropriate department, research, liaison with academic or administrative units, involvement in university program development, etc.).

F. Professional Activities

- 1. Staff members should belong to and participate in appropriate professional organizations.
- 2. Staff members should be encouraged and supported in accepting leadership responsibilities within their respective organizations.
- 2. Staff members should be encouraged to participate in community activities related to their profession.

G. Professional Development

1. Staff members should devote a certain portion of their time to professional development activities.
2. The Counseling Service should maintain a continuous in-service training program, the chief feature of which is supervision and consultation. Junior staff members should have the opportunity for continuing supervision and consultation from more highly trained and experienced staff members. Additional in-service training should be provided for all, which may involve such professional activities as case presentations, research reports, discussion of issues, etc.
3. Staff members should have the opportunity to attend campus colloquia and seminars; attendance at local, regional, and national professional meetings should be arranged in relation to agency needs and to individual interests with adequate budgetary support.

H. Compensation

1. Salaries should be established in relation to performance of duties, assumption of responsibility, and according to academic rank within the institution. Salaries should be commensurate with those in effect for staff members in similar settings within the geographical area. Nine-, ten-, and twelve-month appointments should have differential salaries based on length of appointment.

2. Within Counseling Service evaluation of staff members for salary increments, promotion, and tenure should be based primarily upon the quality of performance.

I. Work Load

1. Scheduled counseling appointments for a full-time counselor should ordinarily not exceed 50%-60% of the work day, to allow time for preparation of interviews and reports, updating institutional information, research, staff and faculty contacts, staff meetings, supervision and consultation, personal development, walk-in and emergency counseling cases, etc. The counseling load should be flexible and adjusted according to the counselor's involvement in group work, teaching, outreach projects, etc.

J. Supporting Staff

1. Clerical and technical employees (including graduate assistants) should be employed and trained in sufficient numbers to free staff members for professional duties.
2. Clerical employees who deal directly with students should be carefully selected, since they play an important role in the student's impressions of the Service and often must make some preliminary decisions about the student.

V. Referral Procedures

- A. Counseling Service Staff members should make full use of referral resources within the institution and the local community.

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- B. The confidential nature of the counseling relationship should be maintained at all times. Information should be released only at the request or concurrence of a counselee, and with his full knowledge of the nature of the information that is being released. Appropriate information should then be released selectively and only to qualified recipients.
 - C. To provide the basis for re-referral of the student for later service, referral, or provision of information, confidential and well-protected records should be maintained. They should contain all pertinent materials but should be retained only for the time suitable for the service and research needs of the Counseling Service.

VI. Physical Facilities

- A. The Counseling Service should be centrally located and easily accessible to students. Its principal location should preferably be separate from university administrative offices, police, or medical facilities. The provision of facilities for "satellite" centres near residence or other concentrations of students should be considered.
- B. Minimal Requirements
 - 1. Individual offices for psychologist (at least 150 square feet) with adequate ventilation and soundproofing. To provide for confidentiality and students' comfort, and to accommodate small groups, the type of room indicated is essential. Each office should include, as needed equipment, a telephone, intercommunication system,

dictating equipment, and recording capability.

2. A reception area which provides a comfortable and private waiting place for students.
3. A vocational and educational materials library and reading room, including current significant books, journals, institutional catalogs and occupational information.
4. A general testing room, well lighted, ventilated and soundproofed, with separate rooms for individually administered tests.
5. Group meeting rooms, appropriately furnished.
6. Appropriate space and equipment for remedial services, if offered.
7. A staff conference lounge.
8. Audio and/or television tape-recording facilities for in-service training and for counseling purposes.
9. A professional library well stocked with appropriate current journals and reference materials.
10. Computers and/or calculators or ready access to such equipment.

APPENDIX D

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REFERENCES ON COUNSELLING AND STUDENT DEVELOPMENT

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APPENDIX E

THEORIES OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELLING

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THEORIES OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELLING

Need for theories

During its first forty years vocational guidance proceeded with minimum theory. Since 1950 there has been a realization that ability to enhance vocational behaviour depends on fuller understanding of the processes involved and the factors which influence them. An appropriate model of man is needed.

Models "imported" from general personality theories provide only partial insights into vocational behaviour. Hence, there have been "home grown" attempts to identify the processes involved and the factors which influence an individual's choices, work adjustments, and career pattern. Research studies provide some data. Vocational theories go further incorporating research findings and general observations in a logical framework and establishing an order among determinants.

Varieties of theories

The new theories may be classified on several bases:

1. Goals - For some theories the goal is to understand occupational choice - what happens or what has happened earlier when a person chooses an occupation. Others seek to understand career, the pattern formed by successive choices and adjustments a person makes in the course of his work life. Still other theories seek to supply a framework for decision making which will ensure that choices are based on adequate information and rational thinking. The choice

process is described precisely and in language and methods of computer technology.

2. Factors emphasized - Social systems theories seek determining factors of vocational behaviour in the people, groups, cultural influences, and other situational forces with which the person comes in contact. Personality theories view choice as a function of the individual.

Present status of theories

There is no one complete, fully adequate and fully substantiated theory. All have shortcomings and should be regarded as preliminary steps towards new views of occupational behaviour. Most of them are not mutually exclusive but form possible components of an overall view of vocational behaviour. For the present, the counsellor must use his judgment in accepting and synthesizing ideas which make sense to him or which seem to promise usefulness for a particular project.

Some requirements which theories in the vocational field should meet are suggested below. They should:

1. Cover the full range of vocational behaviour - preferences, choices, adjustments, career pattern.
2. Call attention to kinds of determining factors which have to be considered.
3. Integrate the factors in a logically consistent framework, e.g. establish an order among determinants, show interconnections.

4. Indicate ways in which vocational behaviour may be enhanced.
5. Generate hypotheses for research which are sufficiently close to empirical events that they can be translated into measurement operations.

SOCIAL SYSTEMS THEORIES

In general, these theories view society as providing a framework of pressures and opportunities within which a person exercises choice and other forms of vocational behaviour.

Developmental task theory

Among the environmental pressure theories is that of Havighurst (13) who sees the pressures as developmental tasks. These are tasks which society presents at certain periods in life and which are important for the individual's development. If mastered satisfactorily, they contribute to satisfaction and success in future tasks. Failure leads to unhappiness, disapproval of society, and difficulty with later endeavours.

The appropriate time for mastery of these tasks is determined by cultural pressure, although personal motives and aspirations later become a force in development. If the tasks are not mastered at the appropriate time, they may not be achieved well. The moment for rapid outgrowth of some other part will have arrived and suppress the belated tendency.

Some developmental tasks are vocational such as acquiring basic attitudes of trust, autonomy, initiative, habits of industry, learning about occupations, acquiring tentative

goals, and crystallization of choice.

Reference groups

Hadley and Ley (11) apply reference group theory to vocational development. The groups with which an individual comes in contact hold attitudes and values or standards of behaviour. They apply pressure to individuals which are closely related to developmental tasks. If the individual is a member of the group, he finds standards are expected and enforced (normative role), although eventually they are internalized. Group standards also influence those who aspire for membership (aspiration role). Further, they provide a comparison point for self evaluation (comparative role). Family, later peer groups, and still later occupations selected and entered act as reference groups.

Opportunity theories

In addition to pressures, society presents opportunities to the individual to meet society's expectations and to satisfy his needs (Super 27). For example, work and school activities provide many opportunities for exploration and try out of various roles. A youth may be encouraged to try a particular role by identification or by learning that he has strength in a trait important for the role. Evaluations of performance are important for the individual's development because they determine whether or not the role will be repeated. The individual finds a role that is satisfying and may translate it into a career.

Occupational composition

Holland's (16) "birds of a feather" theory suggests that there are six basic types of occupational environment and that the attributes of each environment are determined primarily by the kinds of persons in its occupations. Where people congregate they create an environment which reflects the type they are. The character of the occupation created in this way attracts and retains other persons of similar type because it provides opportunity to be this kind of person.

Mobility theories

These theories stress the boundaries to opportunities as they are influenced by personal factors. Miller and Form (20) stress accident of birth as setting the occupational boundaries of most workers, since it establishes family, race, nationality, social class, residential district, educational and cultural opportunities. These factors operate by (1) providing boundaries within which the person will observe and experience work activities, (2) restricting or facilitating opportunity to enter certain fields, (3) diminishing or enhancing expectation - because of restricted opportunity many work possibilities may never appear in the individual's thinking.

Other mobility theorists, such as Thomas (30), emphasize the second aspect of the above theory: the number of pathways open to an individual may be limited or expanded by parts of society which are influenced by his attributes - socio-economic status, education, membership in minority group,

ethnic background, or some other. Mobility is provided or limitations imposed by the various social structures through which an individual's career carries him.

Cultural dynamic approach

Super (28) synthesizes some of the preceding views. Society presents the individual with the need to make certain choices and to play certain types of roles, the tasks differing at different age levels. It also presents a range of opportunities available to the person for meeting these requirements and satisfying his needs. The individual's responses to these pressures and opportunities will be influenced by the attitudes, values, and behaviour of the various groups with which he has come in contact.

The individual may be viewed as occupying the centre of several concentric circles which represent the social systems with which he interacts. The outer circle represents general North American cultural variables (free enterprise, democracy, western values). Moving inwards we come to sub-cultural forces which exert themselves on the individual (class values, attitudes, customs). The next circle represents community variables (peer relationships, ethnic groupings, religious influences, social contacts). Finally, impinging most directly on the individual, are the organizational settings in which he is operating at any given time: home, school, family, church, and so on. As one moves from periphery to centre, task requirements change from abstract to very specific.

Contributions and limitations of social systems theories

1. They help counsellors to understand some inadequacies in vocational behaviour.
2. They emphasize the necessity of bringing about environmental changes to aid vocational development, e.g. provision of experiences which will expand the range of observation of work for persons whose boundaries are limited.
3. Despite the above values, the theories may lead us to overlook the fact that some individuals achieve upward mobility despite unfavourable conditions and that others might be helped to do so.

PERSONALITY THEORIES

Traditionally, concern for personal factors in choice has emphasized abilities. Newer theories centre attention first on the person's preferred or characteristic ways of acting, what he seeks out and what is avoided and his ways of dealing with daily problems. These factors are viewed as influencing a person's perceptions, choice of activities, persistence in them, sometimes the development of special abilities. Eventually, the individual gravitates towards occupations which permit a preferred style of life. At a secondary stage reality factors such as abilities and work traits come into play exerting a limiting or moderating influence on choice.

One group of personality theories emphasizes present personality structure. These include trait theory and Holland's

modified type theory. Another group emphasized development of vocational behaviours over a period of time. Neither emphasis excludes the other.

TRAIT AND FACTOR THEORY

The theory

This theory views each person as a pattern of traits. The traits are differently related to various work and educational tasks. They are also differently characteristic of persons engaged in different tasks. For the most part, emphasis is on personal traits. Later, ideas such as socio-economic status and educational level were added and designated as factors.

Development of this approach

This simple but very powerful idea was introduced in North America by Hugo Munsterburg, founder of American applied psychology. First practical application was made by Frank Parsons in 1908. It is still the most commonly applied theory.

Some key points in development of the approach may be noted. In the 1920s and 1930s testing matured and contributed to vocational counselling. During this period Viteles, University of Pennsylvania, introduced the job psychograph by which occupational demands can be expressed in quantitative and standardized form corresponding to the traits used in analysis of the individual. The Minnesota Employment Stabilization Research Institute (1936) established

the existence of occupational patterns. The Adult Adjustment Service (New York, 1935) showed that the method could be applied to adults on a service basis. The Vocational Advisory Service (New York, 1939) applied the approach in a youth employment service. Application to disadvantaged youths, during the depression, was demonstrated by the American Youth Commission (published 1940). In the same year the U.S. Employment Service published extensive work on trait patterns of occupational families based on its new multiple factor tests.

Application to decision making

The theory implies an attribute matching model for decision making. In Parson's classic stages of choosing a vocation (1) the client takes an inventory of his personal characteristics, (2) he investigates a variety of occupations to learn about their opportunities and requirements, and (3) after "sound reasoning" he selects an occupation whose requirements match his personal attributes.

Application to research

The theory is associated with the actuarial method for research. An occupational group is selected and measures of selected characteristics applied. Analysis of the data is made to determine how the group differs from others or the extent to which the measures relate with some criterion of success or satisfaction. Objectives are to derive from trait assessments predictions of probable outcomes in or resemblance to various groups.

Elaborations of the theory

The theory has undergone considerable elaboration in the following respects:

1. Classification - How can the 17,000 words descriptive of human behaviour be reduced to a manageable number of terms? Studies in interrelation of traits lead to reduction through grouping or extraction of underlying factors. Other studies have sought to identify those traits which are most useful in describing a person. Cattell, Guilford, and Lowell Kelly have made outstanding contributions in this field.
2. Development - There is a pattern of progression from infancy to adulthood with respect to emerging traits. This pattern must be determined for each trait. Which traits remain stable after the late adolescent period and which ones continue to change? What conditions influence rate of development and level reached? What is the influence of special life events and formal learning in strengthening capabilities?
3. Assessment - Tests and other means to identify capabilities have been developed and studies made of their weighting and combination for prediction. Ways must be found to facilitate understanding and applying one's self information.
4. Significance - Research may be concerned with determining for various occupations the significance

of single traits, profiles, or weighted combinations of scores.

5. Dynamics - Concern for knowledge of one's potentialities as a means of controlling his development is a profound lifelong urge. Efforts at self discovery produce basic satisfactions which reinforce a person's efforts in life tasks. Knowledge that one possesses a trait important for success in a particular endeavour may lead to tryout in that direction. A capacity may provide its own drive towards expression. The full meaning of life is understood only by becoming one's potentialities.
6. Counsellor's role - Individuals are helped to understand themselves and to apply this self information.

Evaluation of the theory

It has proven useful (1) in vocational choice and selection, (2) as a means of adjusting instruction or work demands to individual capacity, and (3) to facilitate learning through strengthening basic traits in fields where difficulty has been experienced.

Although still the most commonly applied and practical approach, dissatisfaction has arisen with complete reliance on trait and factor theory. The theory has been criticized on the following grounds:

1. It demands accurate information about an extensive array of traits and occupations which is simply not available.

2. General hypotheses concerning choice and adjustment processes are lacking.
3. Traits are often assumed to be static. In fact, they develop through interaction of organism and environment.
4. The process has focussed on determinants of success rather than satisfaction.
5. Research design has been cross-sectional. For example, there is little work on following subjects who become scientists from school to employment. We need to know the characteristics and behaviour of potential scientists while choice is taking place, not after it is made.
6. Choice is regarded as a wholly logical process. Feeling and emotional elements are overlooked.
7. Choice is assumed to take place at a particular point in time. There is no indication of preceding events which may have influenced choice. Once made, it is for all time.
8. The only branch of behaviour science to which the theory is related is testing.

Many of these limitations are correctible within trait theory. Newer applications seek better understanding of values, needs, motivation, adjustment. The importance of cultural forces and need to aid the whole individual are acknowledged. Developmental concepts are accepted and efforts made to discover patterns of attributes significant for a given field of endeavor as they appear at various stages

of development. Individual traits and factors are treated as influences on a series of choices rather than as requirements for specific occupations. Although each occupation requires a characteristic pattern of traits, there are tolerances wide enough to allow some variety of individuals in each occupation and some diversity of occupations for each individual. Newer views do not seek to discard trait theory but rather to revise and incorporate it in a new approach.

TYPE THEORY

The outstanding type theory is that of John L. Holland (16). Because choice of vocation is an expression of personality, it follows that each vocation attracts and retains people with similar personalities. Occupational environments are for the most part transmitted through the people in them. Consequently, people and occupations can be classified in similar terms. The pairing of persons and vocations leads to several outcomes which can be predicted and understood.

Types of person - People can be characterized by their resemblance to one or more of six personality groups: realistic, intellectual, social, conventional, enterprising, artistic. Each type is a summary of what we know about people in a given occupational group - their outlook, life goals, coping behaviours, things avoided, values, interests and competencies.

By comparing an individual's attributes with those of the model types we can determine which ones he resembles

most. His resemblances to each of the six types yields a personality profile in the form of either quantitative scores or rankings. Thus, the system avoids categorizing the person as a single type.

Types may be assessed from (1) expressed vocational preferences and interests, (2) interest tests, (3) a survey of attributes which discriminate between types, (4) occupations followed.

In addition to dominant types, one may note (1) consistency of pattern, e.g. 4 and 5 are opposed traits, 5 and 1 are consistent; (2) homogeneity - extent of the range between highest and lowest types in a pattern.

Environments - The six environments are each dominated by a given type of person. Any environment may be characterized by assessing its people - their vocational preferences, occupations, educational programmes, interest or personal ratings. The per cent of each personal type can be shown or the environmental pattern indicated by ranking the types.

Choice - People search for an environment that permits them to express their personality, be themselves. Similarly, each environment attracts and retains persons whose dominant type is similar to that associated with the environment.

Primary direction of choice (one of the six groups of occupations) is a function of the dominant individual characteristic. Secondary direction (role within the occupational group) is a function of the secondary character of the personality pattern. Level of choice is based on

status needs, estimate of competence, potential and worth with respect to others.

People in environments - Some outcomes can be forecast from the nature of the pairing of individual and environment. In general, congruent person-environment patterns are conducive to stable choice, academic and vocational achievement, satisfaction, and personal stability. These outcomes may be further influenced by other factors.

Stable choice is favored by realistic, intellectual, consistent and homogenous individual patterns, also by realistic, consistent and homogenous environments.

Vocational achievement is favored by personal strength in social and enterprising types and consistent environment.

Academic achievement is associated with intellectual, social, artistic, conventional, realistic personal types in that order. Environments may be similarly ranked.

Creativity is favored by artistic and intellectual strength and consistent pattern. Field of creativity is determined by the dominant personal pattern.

Satisfaction is greater in conventional, consistent, homogenous environments. It is low in social environments because signs of success are less tangible.

Freedom from adjustment problems is favored by realistic and conventional environments and freedom from adjustment problems because of concrete signs of achievement and explicit satisfaction of tasks. Artistic environments rate low in this respect because of ambiguity of achievement criteria.

Evaluation

The theory provides a simple means of mapping a mass of information about an individual's history and plans and relating this to what is known about occupations. It is close to observables and provides many hypotheses capable of research testing. Research and revision are in progress. The theory has been criticized for evaluating persons and environments in terms of types rather than on a fixed set of traits.

Some practical implications: Past choices and tentative future choices of vocation are efficient and simple guides to personality. Students require more acquaintance with occupations to make the secondary choice within a vocational class.

DEVELOPMENTAL THEORIES

These stress the development of choice and other vocational behaviour over a period of time. They contrast with an earlier assumption that choice occurs at a particular time. Contributions have been made by a number of workers.

Pre-entry period - Eli Ginzberg, 1951

Ginzberg (9), an economist, was first in North America to introduce a developmental approach which he did by studying how young people deal with vocational choice over some years before they enter work - from early elementary school to university post graduate levels. Subsequently, he has made many contributions to the field of conservation of human

talent. Four principles emerged from his early study:

1. Choice of entry occupation is the outcome of a development extending over about ten years.
2. During this period youths pass through three stages: (a) Fantasy - up to age 10 choices are based on whatever is attractive at the moment. (b) Tentative - choices become more serious and are based on personal characteristics - interests, abilities, values in that order. They have little reference to reality. (c) From age 17 practical considerations enter, e.g. opportunities, time, cost. There are sub-stages of exploration, crystallization, and specification.
3. Entry choice is a compromise between personal and reality factors.
4. The options open to a person at any time are limited by the choices he has already made. These actualize and strengthen some possibilities while excluding others.

Evaluation: The study established that entry choice is an outcome of a developmental process. It spurred scientific interest in this field. However, the stages and ages associated with them must be regarded as hypothetical because of limited numbers of subjects and later conflicting evidence.

Life stages - Charlotte Buehler, 1933

Eighteen years before Ginzberg, Buehler (4) introduced a longitudinal approach covering the whole life span

and including social, family, and community activities as well as vocational ones. She asked older people about their choices and activities throughout life, and found that events tended to group themselves by periods, each concerned with a persistent theme or task. This led to the concept of life stages which, in their vocational aspects and with some modification by Super, are as follows:

Growth (to 14 years) - Learning basic work attitudes such as self direction, conforming to school, adopting own sex role, absorbing parents' attitudes to work and particular occupations.

Exploration (to 18 years) - Learning more about self and work, concern about choice, achieving sense of economic independence.

Trial (to 25 years) - Entering a job, finding whether it is satisfying and one can fill it. There may be a number of job changes.

Establishment (to 45 years) - Settling on a field, working to build a career.

Maintenance (to 60 years) - Holding one's own in work without breaking new ground.

Decline (60 years on) - Tapering off responsibilities, planning retirement.

Evaluation: Ignored until the 1950's, Buehler's work then established vocational development as beginning early and extending throughout life. In its course a person is

faced with a series of changing tasks and expectations, each requiring a new orientation. The stages provide a way of organizing the events of a person's career and also provide a backdrop against which his situation can be seen more clearly - the tasks with which he is coping, and his vocational maturity in comparison with others.

New inquiries were stimulated. Some were concerned with understanding the difficulties and coping methods of each stage and the nature of the development which takes place within it. New substages were introduced, e.g. Tiedeman's stages in anticipation and after entry on a new job. Individual differences in career patterns were recognized beyond the conventional patterns described by Buehler. The idea of developmental tasks implicit in Buehler was later developed by Havighurst (13).

Early development theories

It is generally believed that early experiences have a great deal to do with shaping personality and, as the individual moves towards maturity, experiential factors become less influential. Consequently, some theories have sought to provide a link between childhood experiences and later choices. They give attention to early experiences which may influence the development of needs and interests, or the directions in which psychic energy comes to be expended voluntarily and so eventually influence the choices made as life progresses.

Interpersonal relations and need satisfaction - Anne Roe, 1956

Roe's theory (22, 23) sees individual need patterns

appearing early in life. Those needs which become fixated make for effortless and active attention, selection of and persistence in certain activities, and, in some cases, development of special abilities and choice of occupation. The directions in which energy comes to be expended voluntarily are determined by the patterning of early satisfactions and frustrations. Needs satisfied routinely as they appear do not develop into unconscious motivators. Needs for which even minimum satisfaction is rarely achieved, if of high order, will be expunged and, if of lower order, prevent the appearance of higher order needs. Needs whose satisfaction is delayed but eventually accomplished become unconscious motivators depending largely on the degree of satisfaction felt. The eventual pattern of psychic energies in terms of attention directedness is the major determinant of the field to which an individual will apply himself. The intensity of these needs is the major determinant of degree of motivation.

The satisfaction of basic needs is clearly related to parental handling of children and the psychological climate of the home. Such variables as parental overprotection and pressure, rejection and neglect, casual or loving acceptance, are important factors influencing the focus of vocational activity. Experience with such variables makes for development of basic attitudes, interests, and capacities which gain expression in the general pattern of adult life, in personal relations, and ultimately in vocational choice.

The primary outcome of these experiences is motivation

towards persons or non-persons. The theory also seeks to account for further differentiation of interests, although this is considered less important. In general, dealing with people is fostered by loving acceptance or protection. Self concentration or being constantly aware of opinions and attitudes of others may be fostered by overprotective or overdemanding attitudes.

Evaluation: Roe and Siegelman conclude from three studies that they offer no support for a general relationship between early parent-child interaction and specific occupational choice. There are, however, some suggestions of relations between these interactions and later attitudes toward persons, and some further suggestions that this has played a part in choice of a few occupations. Although parent-child relationships will not determine the specific occupational choice, they may be significant in helping the individual to examine his attitudes toward other persons and thus may affect his happiness or lack of happiness in working in certain occupations where certain kinds of people may be predominant.

Psycho-analytic oriented approach - Segal, Nachman, Bordin, 1960

This theory (3, 21, 24) also holds that the basis for choice is laid early in life, probably in infancy and elementary school. However, it postulates a greater variety of developmental experiences important for choice than does Roe. Special pleasure, encouragement, anxiety, or rebuff associated with an early need may influence its later expression and lead to the development of a certain adult type of character. Expression of the need may be influenced

in one of the following ways:

1. The original form of behaviour may be strengthened or weakened.
2. Defences against expression of the need may be established.
3. There may be sublimation of the need.

Occupations differ in the opportunities they offer for need gratification and the early motivated activities are assumed to be the source of later choice among them. For example, the early nurturant motive concerned with taking nourishment may later become concern with feeding and care of living things, that food be plentiful, protecting and promoting growth of people, animals, or plants, even using words as a means of helping people. Early sex curiosity is assumed to be the later source of curiosity as seen in scientific careers. If curiosity about interpersonal roles of parents is treated with some tolerance, the individual might become a clinical psychologist. If this curiosity is rebuffed and displacement to other areas is facilitated by intellectual stimulation, the individual might become a physicist.

To test the theory its authors first consider the needs and modes of expression which might be gratified by each of a number of occupations. Then predictions are made regarding the expected childhood experiences which would lead workers to develop these needs. Hypotheses set up in this way have been for the most part confirmed by worker data in about nine occupations.

To facilitate application of the theory the authors have developed a catalogue of ten basic motivations in terms of which both individuals and occupations may be analyzed.

Evaluation: Questioning adult subjects about childhood experiences is suspect because of the effects of forgetting and regression. However, research findings seem to justify further exploration. The idea of need patterns established early in life and also the idea of continuity of development are generally accepted. However, the development course for each determinant proposed by this theory is questionable.

In practice, the theory directs attention to early history as providing significant data. Unfortunately, job-need descriptions seem sexy and fanciful, e.g. needs associated with plumber include anal (calculating costs and estimating materials), genital (reaming and coupling), exploratory (detecting leaks and blockages), flowing-quenching (arranging pipes and valves for flow of fluids). It would be difficult for a school counsellor to use this kind of analysis.

Despite difficulties presented by the theory, it is possible that choices held persistently without supporting evidence may be due to processes similar to those which the theory supplies.

Developmental crises theory - Erik Erikson, 1959

Erikson (6) is concerned with general readiness for choice and for entry into adult life rather than with the particular direction chosen. Readiness for adulthood is viewed as dependent on having developed a sense of being a unique, well defined personality and a conviction that one's

individual character will have value for society and find a place in it. This identity formation is based on self representations derived from the handling of crises in early developmental tasks. If unsuccessful in identity formation, the person is unable to settle on an occupational role.

The theory outlines a sequence of stages in development using the dynamics of childhood derived from psychoanalysis, the development of capacities from developmental psychology, and the idea of developmental tasks. Caretaking persons are seen as agents of their society meeting each phase of the individual's development in ways contributing to his character and ensuring that he will be viable in that society. Crises arise in the form of decisive encounters between environment and individual. Solutions are lasting in their influence on personality. Behaviour associated with a particular stage generalizes beyond the source of its origin; for example, feeding behaviour becomes a manner of getting other people to do what we want and also of giving. Through these processes the individual may develop positive traits such as trust, independence, initiative, industry or negative ones such as mistrust, doubt, guilt, inferiority.

Identity manifests itself when the young person must (a) choose friends and a mate, (b) make a decisive occupational choice, or (c) engage in energetic self competition. These conditions bring to the fore conflicting identifications - identity diffusion. The person just cannot take hold of some kind of life or is bewildered by some role forced upon him. Specific forms include the following:

- Unable to settle on an occupational role.
- Status concern - hunger for approval, jealous of others, total identification with another.
- Over identifies with crowd heroes.
- Synthetic personality - emphasis on appearances.
- Not aspiring beyond making the grade.
- Avoiding choices, isolation.
- Snobbish hostility to roles offered as desirable.
- Time diffusion - unable to wait or feel that waiting is worthwhile, a sense of great urgency.

Each form of identity diffusion can be related to specific crises of earlier life, e.g. time diffusion derives from the oral stage.

Evaluation: The theory integrates psychoanalytic, developmental task, and self concept approaches. It provides descriptions of various forms of identity diffusion and suggests how each may be related to earlier experiences. Application of these views may be more relevant to child management than to counselling.

Synthesis of developmental approaches - Donald Super

Super (27, 28, 29) has synthesized and elaborated developmental theories in the following propositions:

Development process -

1. Vocational behaviour is the outcome of (a) the individual's present situation and (b) a developmental process.
2. The developmental process commences early in life and continues until late.
3. It is one phase of general development and is subject to

same general forces - constitutional, environmental, experiential.

4. It has a different place in the general development of different persons. In some, particularly those at professional levels, it is a salient focus on organization. In most adults it plays some part but other self percepts may be more central to the individual's identity.
5. It is a continuous or unitary process rather than a series of discrete events, e.g. choice and adjustment are seen as similar.
6. It is orderly, patterned, predictable, not impulsive, unexplainable. Apparent discontinuities in development are more evident in adolescence than in earlier or later periods.
7. The process is irreversible because individuals resist acknowledging error and reality does not give them time to go back and change direction.
8. The motives and capacities laid down in childhood are important elements in vocational development.
9. As the individual moves forward in life he encounters a sequence of environments containing social expectations and cultural resources. These change at succeeding stages of life. Social influences operate both in internalized and external form and there may be possible conflict between them.
10. As he seeks to satisfy his needs the individual interacts with his environment. The interaction is a dynamic

process resulting in compromise, integration, or synthesis between personal needs and resources on the one hand, expectations and opportunities of the culture on the other.

11. A factor in this interaction is selective perception resulting from such factors as the motives laid down in childhood and later in identifications. The selection is a ruling out process by which vocational structure develops.
12. One outcome of the interaction is a differentiation of traits and growing self knowledge. Another is a growing understanding of developmental tasks and opportunities as well as the occupational behaviour needed to carry them out. These changes paralleled the career stages constituting a development which, if adequate, will give the individual the vocational maturity needed to cope with the problems of each stage as his career unfolds. At each stage the person is likely to look forward to the adjustment he will have to make in the next one as well as being concerned with the one he is in.
13. Vocational maturity is the point currently reached by a person in his vocational development. It may or may not be appropriate to his chronological age. Assessment of VM requires that we know fully the vocational development behaviours of the stage the individual is in. Super's research shows the following dimensions for the exploratory stage: concern with choice, acceptance of

responsibility for choice and planning, having information and plans regarding a preferred occupation, differentiation of traits, consistency of preferences, wisdom of choices in relation to personal characteristics and accessibility.

14. With the coming of adulthood there is formed out of this interaction a life style and emergent career pattern.
15. Work satisfaction and life satisfaction depend on the extent to which the individual succeeds in finding adequate outlets for his traits.
16. Reintegrations leading to different life patterns are possible at any age but drastic changes become less possible with advancing age and increasing responsibilities.

Choice - Choice of occupation is one expression of vocational development. It takes place over a period of time and is influenced by a series of previous decisions such as choice of school curriculum, optional subjects, subjects on which effort will be placed, leisure activities, friends, achievement level. Differentiation of traits combines with earlier choices to narrow the alternatives open to a person. Choice is a continuing process extending into the future rather than a once for all time event; preferences, competencies, situations in which people work and live change with time and experience and bring changes in vocational behaviour. A choice may be made actively or passively, consciously or unconsciously and may be positive or negative, general or specific, deep or superficial.

The individual seeks an occupation which he perceives as likely to satisfy his needs and preferred modes of expression. Final choice is a compromise in which the occupation selected (a) satisfies as many of the person's expectations as possible and (b) provides actual opportunities with reasonable likelihood that they will be realized.

Direction of choice is related to interests, values, needs, identifications. Personality factors more than abilities define the satisfactory range of vocational possibilities for a given individual. Level of choice is related to the individual's intelligence, parents' occupational level, status needs, and skill in interpersonal relations. Environmental factors will also play a part.

Although each occupation requires a characteristic pattern of traits, there are tolerances wide enough to allow some variety of individuals in each occupation and some diversity of occupations for each individual - occupational multipotentiality.

Vocational adjustment - When a job is entered the worker is faced with the task of satisfying (a) his superior and (b) himself that his course is of continuing virtue. His personal satisfaction with the endeavor will depend on whether he can live up to his picture of himself and the extent of agreement between his self picture and the opportunity the occupation affords to be that kind of person.

Unforeseen elements are bound to occur in the role but may sometimes be assimilated or modified to suit the self.

A person may learn to fit his personality to the job by emphasizing some things and playing down others. He may also change certain characteristics of the job, but there are limitations to the amount of modification possible.

Career pattern - This emerges from the sequence of choices and adjustments which an individual makes in the course of his working life. Through analysis and by drawing on sociological studies Super has demonstrated a variety of career patterns in addition to the conventional one described by Buehler. Examples: stable, unstable, multiple trial, double track. He has also noted some factors which determine the patterns. Super is conducting a long-term study of a class of grade 9 boys as they move through their careers to age 35. The study seeks to understand the tasks, difficulties, and coping methods at each stage as well as individual differences in career patterns.

Self concept theory - Donald Super (27, 29)

This theory holds that beliefs and feelings an individual has about himself and his imaginings about the future are important determiners of vocational behaviour. Vocational development is equated with development of the self concept.

The self concept involves two components: (1) Personal attributes - What am I like? How do others see me? What kind of person would I like to be? (2) Place in society - Where do I belong? This question includes finding an appropriate place in work.

A self concept is in process of change and development

from birth to death. The infant probably learns to view himself in certain ways because of treatment accorded to him. The child learns what he is able and not able to do through experience and attitudes of others. He also begins to develop an ideal self through identification with various adults and through learnings. As an adolescent he engages in exploratory activities in which the self is elaborated and clarified, interests, values, and capacities are integrated and obtain vocational meaning. The self concept continues to modify in adulthood but much less rapidly.

A self concept develops as an outcome of two processes: exploration of the world and self exploration, the latter an interaction of aptitudes and needs with one another. Some aspects of these forms of exploration are set forth below:

1. Role playing - The youth tries out various roles in fantasy, play, classes, clubs, jobs. The tryout may be unwitting or a deliberate attempt to find what the role is like. The experience gives opportunity to test one's personal resources and whether the role meets one's needs. If it brings satisfaction, it is continued. If it involves many reality factors, it will be adaptive, if fantasy is strong, maladaptive.
2. Identification - Whether with a person or a sex, this may lead to playing certain occupational roles.
3. Awareness of attributes - Knowing that one has attributes said to be important in a certain

field may prompt an individual to look into it.

4. Evaluation - The youth learns whether the role is satisfying and whether he is able to perform it effectively. Evaluation may be based on ease and satisfaction in performance or it may depend on accepting the evaluation of others. Deliberate efforts to verify whether one can meet requirements of an occupation are referred to as reality testing. The fact that we are generally more interested in becoming one kind of person than another leads to selective evaluation.
5. Differentiation - Self exploration based on the above experiences leads the individual to see himself as preferring or more able in some fields than in others.
6. Synthesis - In self exploration the individual places values on conflicting interests, reaches compromises between personal and reality factors, integrates various classes of attributes, relinquishes some parts of the self to develop others, raises or lowers aspirations. In the outcome personal resources may be harmoniously allied and attuned to expectations of the environment, or there may be incompatibilities leading to conflict.

The self concept is expressed in vocational behaviour. Choice is a translation of the self concept into occupational terms. The individual attempts to select vocations which provide a role consistent with his self picture. After he

enters a job, adjustment is the process of discovering whether it provides opportunity to be the kind of person he wants to be, whether unforeseen elements can be assimilated into the self or modified to suit the self, and whether he can live up to job and self expectations. Discovered incompatibility gives rise to dissatisfaction. Perceptual distortion of self or of anticipatory requirements predisposes towards termination of desire for a particular vocational objective.

Guidance is essentially a process of helping a person to develop and accept an integrated and adequate picture of himself and his role in work, test this concept against reality, and convert it into reality with satisfaction to himself and benefit to society.

Evaluation of Super's theories - The developmental theory provides a framework which has a place for all concepts stressed by other personality theories. It implies that counselling should be viewed as aiding a natural process rather than imposing a formal, logical one.

The self concept theory emphasizes the importance of the individual's perceptions of self and environment rather than how things look to others. It indicates the kinds of experiences which lead to choice and suggests ways of analyzing choices and adjustments. In more general terms, it provides a vehicle through which environmental and personal forces, past conditions and current behaviour influence choice. Finally, it is a means by which the person can shape his life through choices and syntheses he makes rather than being bound to the

past. The principal difficulty is that hypotheses relating to self concept are difficult to test.

Elaborations of development theory - David Tiedeman

Tiedeman and his associates (31, 32) accept the main outlines of developmental and self concept theory as formulated by Super but keep an open mind. The self concept is seen as a gyroscope orienting career. The aim of research is to specify how self orientations and vocational identities arise, what orientations are associated with what life histories, and to specify the stages a person goes through in developing new orientations as he encounters discontinuities in life and moves from familiar to unfamiliar conditions.

Generally, discontinuities are accompanied by choice possibilities and anxiety about the consequences of following the various unfamiliar alternatives. Consequently, the person may need help in charting a course through the discontinuity.

The process of entering upon a discontinuity may be analyzed into the following stages: First, there is a period of anticipation which involves four sub-stages: (a) A period of exploration involving somewhat random and a very acquisitive search for relevant alternatives which set the field for choice. (b) A period of crystallization in which the person attempts to take the measure of himself in relation to each alternative and assess probable consequences. (c) A period of stabilization involving choice of a particular goal. (d) A specification stage in which the person elaborates and perfects the image of the future,

further specifying the anticipated position.

The resulting goal is likely to be more compelling and permanent if justification offered for it relates to previous educational decisions of significance to the present plan, the plan views tomorrow's job as part of a larger plan for personal development, and opposition from alternative choices is at a minimum.

The second part of the process is concerned with implementation and adjustment when the person is face to face with reality. (a) During an induction stage consciously or unconsciously the person conforms to some extent to the motives and values of persons already established in the occupation. His orientation is receptive. (b) As he gains confidence he enters a transition stage in which his orientation becomes more assertive. He seeks to alter the group goal in the direction of his modified goal. (c) In a maintenance stage both the individual and the group strive to keep the resulting organization stable for a time.

With the help of associates Tiedeman has put the claims of development and self concept theories to empirical test. None of these reports generally affirms the claim of the particular theory which speaks of the tenuous character of current theoretical formulations.

Tiedeman states that he is making a transition from the theory of vocational development to the problem of mediating occupational information (32). He states three central issues regarding mediation of occupational information for the goal of vocational maturation - the media through which

the information is modulated, providing the inquirer with personal responsibility for goal delineation, and timing and supervision. He and his associates are doing research on a computerized information system for personal decisions (ISVD). Vocational maturity is defined in terms of (a) an ideal which is presented to the person as information, and (b) which the subject can then react towards in either a mature or an immature manner.

Tiedeman has also sought to formulate mathematical models for understanding career pattern. These include techniques to predict a chain of decisions and to predict simultaneously membership in an occupational class and success or failure within that class.

Elaboration of vocational development theory - David B.
Hershenson

Using the author's (14) formulation of five vocational development life stages, four transitions exist. Associated with each transition is a transitional concept which must be defined and spelled out to allow attainment of the succeeding stage. Further, techniques are needed to facilitate each of the successive transitional concept attainments. The five stages are social-amniotic, self differentiation, competence, independence, commitment. For each transition there is a basic concept, procedure, assistance technique, and relevant theory as follows: (1) "me", determining set, life style analysis, Adler; (2) go vs. no go, information impact, guidance, trait and factor theory; (3) go vs. go, life processing, content and decision making process, Rogers,

Tiedeman, (4) application, information utilization, existential and job matching, Frankl, Beck, Herzburg.

Elaboration of vocational maturity concept - John O. Crites
Warren D. Gribbons

Crites (5) has been doing research to develop a standardized test for vocational maturity that is objective and valid. The test consists of two parts: competence and attitudes. Gribbons (10) has also worked in the area of vocational readiness.

Elaboration of the self concept theory - Budford Stefflre (26)

The healthiest positive selection of occupational role expresses the following relations between self and environment:

1	2	3	
Self =	Self concept =	Occupational role concept =	Occupational role expectation.

Incongruence may occur at one or more of the three points in the above pattern. At point 1 it means distorted perception of self. It may occur at point 2 when the person does not wish to display all of his self concept in the occupation. At point 3 it occurs when the person finds that he is asked to do many things in the occupation which he does not deem appropriate.

IMPORTED PERSONALITY THEORIES

Vocational psychology borrows extensively from personality Theorists such as Allport, Cattell, Murray, Murphy. Learning theories have found little application because they are complicated, show many disagreements, are based on animals,

and do not deal with molar behaviour. Three examples of imported theories are included for illustrative purposes. They have been selected because each one gives a central place to work.

Needs theory - Abraham Maslow

Need levels - According to Maslow (19) man's basic needs may be thought of as arranged in a hierarchy:

Physiological

Safety

Belonging and love

Self respect and esteem

Self actualization - meta needs.

These needs can be satisfied only in step by step fashion. At the lower level people seek through work to satisfy physical needs such as food and warmth. At a somewhat higher level they seek to satisfy belongingness, to have friends and be loved, to have status and a place in life with respect of other people, and a reasonable feeling of worth and self respect. Or they may be motivated by neurotic needs, habit, response to cultural expectations, demands of other people, rewards and punishments.

Individuals whose basic needs are gratified are able to turn to higher motivations - meta needs. Tasks are then loved because they embody intrinsic values that are loved rather than the job as such. Work becomes a means to ends such as justice, truth, goodness, perfection, rewarding virtue and punishing evil, beauty, law and order, in addition to satisfying lower values.

Each individual has his own priorities among the meta needs in accord with his talents, temperament and skills. The needs seem to be a common element of human nature but require culture and practice for their development.

Choice - An individual gravitates towards occupations which reduce his need tensions. He does this with varying degrees of awareness. He may appraise his own needs, estimate the need reducing value of some set of alternatives. For example, teaching may be selected as satisfying to the need to nurture young people. On the other hand, needs may operate unconsciously. A man may become a butcher or boxer because of aggressive drives he must satisfy in socially approved ways. Beyond the basic security level vocational choice may be critical in satisfying needs. However, the particular occupation selected may be less important than psychosocial characteristics common to many occupations.

Adjustment - Unsatisfied security needs may frustrate educational and vocational development of young people regardless of good potential. For the majority of the poor, work and advanced study are not likely to be challenging and interesting because basic needs are not met.

Self actualization - People who are able to turn to higher motivations achieve a state of self actualization characterized as follows:

- They are dedicated, have profound feeling for their work.
- They are committed to a cause outside of and

bigger than self, something not merely selfish.

- What they want to do coincides with what their situation requires.
- Each feels he is being himself in his job.
- They love their work and enjoy it more than any other activity.
- Each identifies with his work and makes it a defining characteristic of self. He cannot imagine being anything else than he is.

This state is achieved by only 8-12 per cent of workers.

Value starvation - Persons who are not sensitive to the inner meta needs are experientially empty. Much social pathology of the affluent is a consequence of value starvation. Their behaviour could be a fusion of continued search for something to believe in combined with anger at being disappointed. Frustrated idealism is partially due to the influence of stupidly limited theories of motivation: behaviourist, Freudian, orthodox social science, economic theories do not recognize the meta values.

Evaluation: The theory focusses on common factors in human nature rather than on individual differences. It is a way of moving beyond individual profiles to broad cultural patterns. It emphasizes that to assist an individual in his development he must be helped to find satisfaction for his security needs sufficient to permit emergence of higher order needs.

On the side of limitations, instruments to measure strength

of needs are lacking. Comparing alternative courses of action which satisfy different needs presents problems. Needs are not the exclusive determinants of behaviour; environmental forces must also be considered.

Individual Psychology - Alfred Adler

Purposive behaviour - For Adler (1) all behaviour is purposive. Its final goal is to be superior, not in social status, but in the sense of striving for completion. Each other drive receives its power from this one. Each person has his own concrete modes of reaching perfection.

Normally, striving takes a primarily social direction. The individual works for the common good, cooperates, places social welfare above self. The social interest is inborn but has to be brought to fruition through guidance. Ultimately the goal becomes attainment of a perfect society. On the other hand, in the neurotic and criminal striving takes a selfish direction - self aggrandizement and power.

An individual is motivated to strive for higher levels of development by inferiority feelings (incompleteness, imperfection). For example, individuals with a defective organ often try to compensate for weakness by strengthening it through intensive training. Pampering or rejection may lead to abnormal forms of striving.

Life style - Each person develops a life style which governs all his perceptions, selection of goals, and manner in which he reacts to life situations. There are innumerable ways of striving for superiority and the person's life style determines which ones he will follow. He perceives, retains,

learns what fits his style. He searches for experiences which will aid him in fulfilling his unique style of life. If not found, he tries to create them. Life styles are formed in early childhood and from then on experiences are assimilated or used according to this style.

When the individual can conceptualize his life style he is in a better position to modify those parts that are erroneous and which may be causing failure. The counsellor helps the person to confront his life style, relate it to his work, and to seek to modify erroneous aspects.

Self - Man makes his own personality from raw materials of heredity and experience. His way of using these materials builds his attitude to life and determines his relation to the outer world.

Occupation - Learning, work, and relations with other people including marriage and children are the basic problems of life. An individual seeks an occupation in harmony with his life style. Maladjustment is the outcome of inappropriate components in the life style.

Evaluation - Adler wrote in greater detail about work adjustment than other therapeutic theorists and his life style analysis seems to offer more in the way of constructs relevant to education and work than do other important theories. His frame of reference has been helpful in conceptualizing assistance in dealing with difficulties in learning, work, and social relations.

It has been criticized as sugar coated, idealistic, and failing to specify the mechanism by which society moulds its members. On the other hand, it comes close to some later concepts such as self actualization (striving for completion) and self concept (awareness of life style and creative self).

Existential Views - Sartre

Sartre (25) regards vocational choice as central in the dynamics of personal development. This development ideally consists of movement from self centeredness to altruistic love. Experiences of "objectification" contribute to personal development. We have many opportunities to reveal to others our true self such, for example, as expressing an unpopular but seemingly sound viewpoint before others. Unfortunately, we like to project an ideal self and find it painful for others to see behind this facade. Hence, we may keep silent or conform in order to escape the pain of others seeing us as we are. Every opportunity for objectification moves us either closer or further away from authenticity.

The most difficult and courageous objectification is choice of vocation. It is such a total commitment that it has greatest implication for happiness or alienation. If we do not objectify ourselves authentically, career choice will reflect desire to absent self from pain of discovery and the result will be alienation from work.

Evaluation - While other theories regard vocational choice as a reflection of personality, existentialism regards it as central in the development of personality. Practically, it emphasizes the importance of self objectification in other areas as preparation for sound vocational choice.

DECISION MAKING THEORIES

Their general nature

The preceding theories identify a number of social and personality factors which may narrow the range of a person's choice possibilities or influence the broad direction of his preferences. However, there is still a specific choice to be made and the theories throw little light on this process.

Reaching a specific choice is a complex task for the person. He is faced by many alternatives and much information. In addition, he is pitted against a group of kibitzers (parents, friends, teachers, counsellors) fielding him information about how to play the game. Any choice is likely to involve relinquishing part of the self which arouses resistance. The person's limited capacity to handle the situation reduces the rationality of decision making. Instead of rational considerations, the decision may be influenced by the will to believe what is congenial, pressure of family or friends, desire to marry, opportunity to become readily established and the like (Hilton, 15).

Decision making theories seek to develop decision making capacity, thus enabling the individual to deal with the complex

mass of information. They take two broad forms: (1) Some are concerned with how people actually reach decisions. What starts the process? What steps do they go through? What brings the process to an end? (2) Others seek to describe a strategy that shows what information is relevant and should be acquired, as well as how to process it correctly. It is generally accepted that the process will be described precisely and in the language of computer technology.

Consonance-dissonance theory - Hilton 1962 (15)

General hypothesis - The decision making process is initiated by input from the environment such as the offer of a new job, information that income is insufficient, a warning that one should decide on a career. The input raises dissonance (internal inconsistency) above the tolerable level.

An individual then examines his premises, that is, his beliefs about himself and about occupational roles and their requirements. If the premises can be changed to accommodate the input the individual makes the change and a revised set of premises is tested for dissonance.

If he finds that the premises can not be revised, he searches for possible alternatives in behaviour. An alternative is selected and tested for dissonance. If the dissonance is now below the threshold, the plan is accepted. If it is not, the process is repeated; either the premises are revised or another behaviour alternative is tried. Further hypotheses deal with specific features of this process.

Factors which increase dissonance - Nearness to a decision point. A malevolent environment - demands, threats, rejection, failure to give support. High opportunity for change of career. High heterogeneity among perceived alternatives. Elaborate premises regarding acceptable career decisions, e.g. it must be reversible. Social pressure for decision. Personal inability to suppress or distort premises.

Means of reducing dissonance - Manipulate premises, e.g. decide one does not want the headaches of an executive post. Search for new job or occupation. Adopt a very general career plan which does not commit one to a specific course of action. Postpone decision to see if difficulties pass. Adopt a short term career with consideration only of contemporary characteristics of work.

Factors which increase stability in an occupation - Compatibility with requirements of the role. Social support for the role reinforces premises favorable to continuation. Absence of role alternatives because of limited qualifications or of competing roles in society. Absence of opportunistic, short run strategies. Absence of environmental barriers and restrictions.

Evaluation: The general hypothesis makes only minor contributions to strategy for individual use. The specific hypotheses can be helpful in understanding a person's situation or suggesting possible actions.

Complex information processing model Simon (described by Hilton)

The critical factor in decision making is the incomparability of different outcomes. How does one compare the intellectual stimulation of the work setting with pleasantness of climate? Simon suggests that the individual can search for outcomes that are satisfactory to him and then for a behaviour alternative which has outcomes all of which are satisfactory. Instead of attempting a complete ordering of payoff, Simon regards satisfactory payoff as one which has values achieving a satisfactory level in each vector.

Probable gain model - Arrow (2)

The individual is faced with a set of alternatives each having certain outcomes which have a certain value to the individual and a certain probability of occurring. In accord with a set of rules the individual chooses an alternative which will maximize his return. Specifically, the following factors are considered:

1. Cost - What is required by way of delay in goal achievement, economic cost, loss of time, necessity for sustained effort at high level over a long period? What does the individual stand to lose in case of failure?
2. Value - What does one stand to gain if successful, e.g. high money reward, economic security, status, satisfaction of needs, reduction of stress, self actualization?

3. Probability of success - What proportion of persons having qualifications similar to those of the client succeed after entering the occupation?
4. Utility for risk - How willing is the individual to take risks. According to the degree of his willingness he may try to minimize his possible loss or maximize expected value.

Evaluation: Although their mode of application is not shown, the factors in this theory are certainly significant.

A practical decision making model - Martin Katz (17, 18)

This model shows not only what information to acquire but also how to process it. The following systems of data must be considered:

1. Value system - A counsellor might jump right into estimating and communicating chances of success in each option. But merely knowing the odds is insufficient for decision making. One must also assess the importance to oneself of success or the seriousness of failure in each option. The decision must depend not only on the expected outcome but also on its value to the person.

Hence, instead of starting with options and returns, Katz starts with values. They are brought into decision making, not in the form of vague discussions, but laid on the line. Steps include:

- (a) Identifying significant values - Each

individual seeks to identify about five values which are significant for him, then to understand them by defining and noting their appearance in various contexts.

- (b) Setting the crucial magnitude of each value, i.e. the minimum acceptable to the person.
- (c) Scaling the values as to their relative importance by distributing 100 points among them.

2. Option system - Options are usually provided by the situation. If numerous, they may be classified to make choices between categories. Steps:

- (a) Evaluate each option as to its strength of return for each value. Use a five point scale based on the frequency with which the chosen magnitude appears in the option.
- (b) Multiply the importance of each value by the strength of return for that value.
- (c) Add the products for each option.

3. Predictive or outcome system - Likelihood of entry and for success is estimated for each option:

- (a) Consult equations or expectancy tables for each option and enter the individual's predictor scores.

4. The decision system - This combines value and outcome systems:

- (a) Multiply the sum of value returns for each option by the predictive index. This gives an Expected Value which combines subjective values and objective probabilities of success.

Evaluation: The theory indicates the sequential nature of the decision making process and the broad factors to be considered. We lack much of the data needed to carry out such a program in exact quantitative form. Nevertheless, the program has much that can be used to help clients to make decisions in a rational manner.

The theory's consideration of values does not distinguish between cost and value components, nor does it consider utility of risk as does the probable gain model. These elements may be needed.

General evaluation of decision making theories

All consider that the individual is confronted by a variety of existing options from which he must select one on a rational basis. Only Katz's theory requires some creativeness on the part of the individual in picturing the values which he hopes for in his work.

This creative component leads one to speculate on the contribution which a clear and vivid goal image may make, not only to a wise decision, but also by facilitating achievement of the goal. Further, some individuals might carry the

creative process further, developing not only their own value systems but also occupations which incorporate these values.

THE VALUES OF VOCATIONAL THEORIES

1. For science

- a. They give an organized picture of the factors influencing vocational behaviour.
- b. They link together many events in a person's career previously regarded as discrete.
- c. They relate vocational behaviour to developmental and personality psychology, also sociology.
- d. They lead to new types of research: (i) Longitudinal studies such as Super's follow through of grade 9 boys to age 35 to analyze stages, clarify vocational concepts, map and discover linkage between antecedent conditions and consequent behaviour. (ii) Subjective studies, such as O'Hara's study of nursing school drop outs in terms of discrepancies between their views about themselves, the nursing program, and superior's expectations.

2. For organization of services

- e. There is need for help at all ages throughout life.

- f. There is need for help in dealing with emergencies as they arise (crisis counselling) and also to prepare individuals to deal with the tasks of each life stage before they are encountered (developmental guidance).
- g. The environment may be planned in ways to aid vocational development, e.g. by providing opportunities to try out a variety of roles and evaluate performance in each.

3. For counselling or other helping activities

- h. Guidance aids a natural process of development already under way. The counsellor's approach must be related to this development and facilitate its further progress.
- i. Adjustment and choice problems are both understood in terms of congruence between expectations and reality.
- j. Because a process of development is involved rather than a logical exercise ample time is required for change.
- k. The first step in helping a client is to aid growth of clear awareness of self. In this process there is emphasis on:
 - Knowledge of present level of development in relation to a backdrop of life

stages in order to see more clearly the problems and kinds of help likely to be required.

- Subjective factors such as needs, values interests. This emphasis leads to increased use of interviews, self inventories, projectives, and autobiographical records.
- Analysis of life history to ascertain recurring themes and underlying trends. Trends are projected into the future, each modified in the light of the others.
- Childhood experiences because they contribute importantly to differentiation of motives and capacities.

1. The second step in helping a client is to assist him to translate his views about himself into occupational terms. Statement he makes or accepts about occupations are examined for congruence with self concept.
- m. The third step is to assist the individual to test views about himself and occupational roles against reality. Ability tests, try out experiences, and occupational information are used to validate the self concept and to determine likelihood of entry and success in the occupation.

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APPENDIX F

SCANNING THE LITERATURE

- a Mini Survey of Contemporary Issues

- Teaching Experience
- Research
- Volunteer Assistance
- Programmed Assistance
- Before and After High School Graduation
- Counselling in Vocational Schools
- Counselling in an Inner City Community College
- Community College Counsellors' Position Paper

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Although teaching experience has always been a prerequisite for employment as a school counsellor, many counsellors whom we interviewed are beginning to wonder whether this requirement now needs a thorough review. Historically, school counselling was associated with the classroom in that the counsellor was usually a part-time teacher who still maintained a teaching schedule. As the field of school counselling developed, particularly after World War II, the number of part-time practitioners decreased. Job duties changed, training requirements increased and a definitive counselling identity and profession started to emerge. Here in Ontario, elementary and high school teachers can take a special program at the Ontario College of Education, leading to a Guidance Specialist Certificate, while at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) and the University of Ottawa, two-year graduate programs are offered leading to M.A. degrees in Counselling or Special Education. Thus, as counselling became more established and an integral part of the educational system, many counsellors have started to raise what they believe is a very legitimate question: Does a counsellor have to serve an apprenticeship in a related specialty, namely teaching, before entering his chosen field of school counselling?

Charles W. Hume, a Director of Guidance Services for the Westfield (Massachusetts) public schools, has done an excellent review of guidance studies bearing on this point (1).

He points out that there has been very little experimental research as to whether a teaching or non-teaching background produces a more effective counsellor because teacher certification is required, and so all counsellors have to have had this experience in order to be hired. Consequently, no comparable control group exists to permit rigorous experimentation.

In the absence of scientific studies, most of the prevailing judgements have been based on the opinion of knowledgeable observers. In general, school administrators support the teaching requirement. This is not surprising, perhaps, because administrators have come up through the teaching ranks and probably view this issue from the perspective of the classroom. Counsellors are about evenly divided as to the value of the teaching requirement, but their judgements are undoubtedly influenced by the fact that they have emerged from the teaching ranks. The least enthusiastic group is the counsellor educators -- those responsible for the training of guidance personnel. And it is their questioning and the influence they have on the counsellor of the future that raise this issue to the level where it is beginning to demand a thorough investigation.

Although it is beyond the scope of this project to attempt to resolve this issue, it seems appropriate to examine it briefly if only to show the complexity and ambiguity of the counsellor's role. A major principle underlying the thesis that counsellors require teaching experience is that counsellors must know something about school management and classroom

problems. Can this knowledge be acquired in any other way besides teaching? The counsellor is essentially an educator, practising his specialty within a school setting. But, education is a broader concept than merely teaching, and certainly the educational process can take place outside the formal classroom. Familiarity with school routine perhaps might be gained by a counselling internship in a school in lieu of teaching experience if the assumption is accepted that school counselling is part of the educative process, yet different from teaching.

Another important proposition in the argument is that counsellors must be able to communicate with administrators and teachers. and to do this, it is necessary to have a teaching background in order to "speak the same language". Obviously, good communication between the counsellor and the school staff is essential. But effective communication requires skill with interpersonal relationships enabling one to listen and evaluate what is being said. The counsellor's psychologically oriented training should equip him for this activity. Moreover, the competent counsellor will not find it too difficult to understand the teaching point of view because it is really not a matter of having experienced the same situation but appreciating how the teacher feels and understands the presenting problem. Viewed in this light, dealing with a teacher is no different than dealing with a student who has a particular problem that the counsellor has not personally experienced.

The resolution of this controversy requires extensive experimental research. Humes sums up the issue very simply:

"Teachers, administrators, counsellors, and counsellor educators must look at the teaching requirement in light of today's demands, not yesterday's prejudices."

RESEARCH

Despite the formative nature of the art of high school guidance, and the requirement for ongoing research to improve counselling practices, it appears that relatively few formal studies are being carried on by the school counsellors. Counsellor educators have been encouraging prospective counsellors to engage in research projects relevant to the schools in which they are employed. Similarly in the United States the major professional organizations representing counsellors, The American Personnel and Guidance Association and The Association for Counsellor Education and Supervision, strongly endorse the conducting of research as an ethical and professional responsibility.

Notwithstanding this encouragement, in the period from 1962 to 1969, Bradley and Smith (2) point out that less than 3 per cent of the articles in the Personnel and Guidance Journal were written by school counsellors. In the same vein, in reviewing subjects related to vocational topics, only 1 in 200 articles published during this seven-year period was written by counselling staff from the high schools. A similar finding was present in reviewing editions of the Vocational Guidance Quarterly, another counselling and guidance journal.

These findings were consistent with the interviews we held with high school and community college counsellors. They all recognized that ongoing research was a part of their role. Witness the fervent plea offered by Rollie Fobert, an Ontario

Superintendent of Guidance in his address to The Northwestern Guidance Association of high school guidance counsellors, in Quetico Park, in the spring of 1970, entitled Guidance in The 70's;

I believe that we cannot continue to bound along performing functions without proving that the functions we perform are useful and necessary. May I emphasize that I say we must prove they are useful and necessary. It is no longer adequate just to say that we are doing a good job. We must prove it! Because of the pressure upon the tax dollar, school trustees and others are going to look most carefully at the services they provide in the schools and the costs of those services. Counsellors, individually and collectively, will be required to show that their services are worth the monies spent.

This will be a terribly difficult task. We can prove our worth by performing action research. We must evaluate our guidance programs. We must see where they are failing to meet the needs of the students. We must repair our programs so that the students are aware constantly that the services we provide are worthwhile and effective.

But somehow, pressures of time, high student/counsellor ratios, lack of administrative support and encouragement cause research activities to be almost at the bottom in the counsellors' list of priorities.

Bradley and Smith (2) attempted to determine what topics high school counsellors believed required additional research which would be of immediate benefit to them. Two hundred counsellors were polled from the high school system in Illinois. The five most frequently mentioned suggestions are listed below:-

- Studies on the factors that influence vocational choices.
- Studies of occupational trends and jobs of the future.
- Survey of the types of jobs available in the local community.
- Reports on obtaining and disseminating vocational information.

- Reports on successful projects and new innovative methods.

The authors conclude by stating:

Confirmation of, or, in some cases, initiation of research practices would seem to revolve around students' needs, counsellor competency, school encouragement, and professional organizations - -
- by engaging in research projects and reporting the results, school counsellors can improve the effectiveness of their own programs and contribute greatly to the field of vocational counselling.

VOLUNTEER ASSISTANCE

Counsellors have been very concerned about the increasing amount of time they have had to devote to clerical and administrative duties, thereby limiting the personal contact they can have with students. Frequently we heard suggestions that volunteers or paraprofessionals should be recruited to assist the counselling staff. Rollie Fobert, a guidance specialist with the Department of Education, felt that the introduction of volunteers would be one of the major innovations in the 70s and summed up his position on this matter by stating:

Another development I believe we should encourage in the 70's is the use of paraprofessionals in our program. Much of the counsellor's work, at least much of what has kept him busy during this past decade, has been routine. We must encourage the growth of the paraprofessional to assist in those areas such as student record maintenance, the collecting, filing and displaying of occupational and educational information, test administration and scoring, and a multitude of other activities now performed by many counsellors. I may add that I am disturbed to learn that many counsellors are becoming even more deeply involved in time-table construction and related activities, which I feel are no more the tasks of the counsellor than of the teacher of English, mathematics or history. I note, with concern I may add, a great reluctance on the part of some of our colleagues to encourage the growth and development of the paraprofessional. I know we must be concerned that the paraprofessional should not be expected nor encouraged to perform those professional activities such as individual group counselling, and group work in guidance. (3)

To assess the usefulness of volunteer aides, North York devised a pilot project last year, using ten women from a community service organization along with the guidance personnel from five junior and senior high schools. The volunteers were given a ten-hour training program which

included visits to the schools where they were to be working, consultations with the guidance staff, workshops designed to help them handle typical situations, and a clarification of the extent of their involvement in the guidance program

The type of work the volunteers did varied with the age levels in the schools where they worked. Some of their duties involved clerical assignments, compiling data from a research project, and assisting students with special problems. Strict limits were imposed. They did not counsel students, have access to confidential material, make educational decisions for students, or interpret information about the student's educational or career choices. These tasks remained with the school counsellors.

In evolving the project, the guidance staff found the volunteers to be most helpful. They required minimal supervision, handled non-counselling tasks with mature judgement and were able to establish a high degree of rapport with the students. The volunteers emerged from the experiment with a clearer idea of the functions of the guidance program and a sharper awareness of the needs of students. They were frustrated, however, in not knowing what was expected of them from week to week, in performing tasks that seemed to be menial without knowing how they fitted into the overall guidance program, and they felt badly about not being able to work directly with students.

Elmer Huff, the coordinator of guidance services for North York, felt the project was successful within its limited scope. He believed that the expectations of the

volunteers were too high while, in some cases, the school staff was reluctant to give them more latitude, perhaps viewing the volunteers as somewhat of a threat and as "another group of busybodies who are going to tell us how to run our school". (4)

It's a small beginning. There are obviously a number of issues that have to be sorted out to more effectively integrate the volunteers into the school system, but it has the potential to develop into a major support to the counselling staff when these organizational obstacles are overcome.

PROGRAMMED ASSISTANCE

When a student confronts a particular educational or occupational choice point, he generally has three major tasks to accomplish. He has to assess his abilities, aptitudes, interests and preferences for various aspects of college or a job, etc.; he has to obtain information about the educational and occupational alternatives; and he then needs a strategy for processing this information into personal goals, plans and actions. Over the last few years, counsellors have been placing increasing emphasis on helping students learn problem-solving and decision-making skills which will equip them in dealing with these academic and vocational issues. Many of the counsellors we interviewed discussed, in a rather loose way, how they helped students make more effective decisions, assisted them in sorting out priorities and working out a plan of action to achieve certain goals, etc. But none of the people we saw had a definite program or a documented procedure which could be articulated or shared by other counsellors.

Scanning the literature resulted in finding such a program currently being conducted in Palo Alto, California, by Jack Hamilton and Brian Jones (5). They have designed a prototype program for individualizing educational and vocational guidance for students in grades seven through twelve.

Since we believe that more attention will be directed in the future to the creation of decision facilitating models, we have extracted a portion of their system for illustration.

Personal Problem-Solving Model for Educational and Vocational Guidance

- Skill Area #1: *Understanding the Problem*
Being willing to work toward setting and achieving educational and vocational goals.
- Skill Area #2: *Searching for and Using Information*
a) Personal information on abilities, interests, preferences, etc., and
b) information about related opportunities in the worlds of education and work.
- Skill Area #3: *Getting Alternatives*
Thinking of several possible educational and vocational goals.
- Skill Area #4: *Selecting Goals and Making Plans*
a) Choosing the goals (first and second choice) that seem like the best bet for the individual, and
b) Making plans for reaching them.
- Skill Area #5: *Carrying Out Plans*
Carrying out the plans, switching to the second best goal if necessary.
- Skill Area #6: *Finding Out If It Works*
a) Judging whether the first (or the second best) goal has been achieved, and
b) Describing what helped and what hindered the individual's efforts along the way.

BEFORE AND AFTER HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION

A common thread running through many research studies in the field of guidance is the concern for what happens to a student upon graduation from high school. These vocational realization investigations raise many cogent questions about the decision-making process. They help provide information as to whether vocational decisions were made prematurely, whether resoluteness and firm commitment to an occupational goal is necessarily a wise plan, and whether schools or other individuals are influential in shaping the decisions made by students.

One such study was done in Alberta using a sample of approximately 200 students (6). This investigation revealed large discrepancies between students' aspirations prior to leaving school in 1965 and the realization of these goals in 1968. Although 30 per cent of the males and 22 per cent of the females planned to enter university after graduation, in reality when polled three years later in 1968, only 20 per cent of the males and 15 per cent of the females had realized this goal. In the same vein,, in 1965, only 18 per cent of the boys planned to obtain employment immediately upon leaving high school; in actuality about 38 per cent entered the labor market at that time. In regard to information about post-high school education or employment, 29 per cent of the boys indicated in 1965

that they felt they had enough information to make a sound decision; in retrospect in 1968, only 10 per cent of these students reported they felt they had sufficient information at the time. For the girls, the figure declined from a high of 43 per cent who claimed they had adequate information in 1965 to a surprising low of 14 per cent in 1968.

During this three year period, many students changed their minds as to the relative value of different sources of information which had been available to them while they were in high school. The table below summarizes this information:

MOST PRODUCTIVE SOURCE OF INFORMATION

<u>Source</u>	<u>Sex</u>	<u>At Graduation</u> (1965)	<u>Three Years</u> <u>After Graduation</u> (1968)
Visits made to training centres, tours, actual employment	M	13%	32%
	F	6%	18%
Career days	M	11%	3%
	F	17%	11%
Occupational courses	M	0%	2%
	F	0%	2%
Parents	M	6%	0%
	F	8%	0%
School counsellors	M	5%	5%
	F	2%	2%
Teachers and Principals	M	3%	5%
	F	0%	5%
Talking with other people	M	26%	30%
	F	13%	42%
Pamphlets, articles & displays	M	30%	24%
	F	52%	22%
Others	M	5%	5%
	F	3%	0%

Summarizing these data, it would appear that visits made to training centres, tours and actual employment experience provided an extremely valuable source of career data, a fact the students did not seem to recognize while they were in high school. Talking with other people also gained in importance as a source of vocational information. Occupational courses, parents, teachers, principals and school counsellors played a very minor role.

In addition to indicating the most productive source of vocational information, students were also asked to state which person had the most influence on their post-secondary plans. The table that follows summarizes their response:

MOST INFLUENTIAL PERSON IN THE
DETERMINATION OF POST SECONDARY PLANS

<u>Person</u>	<u>Sex</u>	<u>At Graduation</u>	<u>Three Years After Graduation</u>
Mother	M	16%	13%
	F	16%	12%
Father	M	6%	13%
	F	12%	14%
Brother or Sister	M	5%	5%
	F	6%	5%
Teacher	M	3%	0%
	F	3%	5%
School Counselor	M	0%	2%
	F	2%	0%
School Principal	M	5%	2%
	F	0%	2%
Personal Friend	M	5%	11%
	F	6%	5%
Doctor, Priest, Minister	M	8%	2%
	F	6%	3%
None	M	53%	40%
	F	50%	44%

<u>Person</u>	<u>Sex</u>	<u>At Graduation</u>	<u>Three Years After Graduation</u>
Others	M	0%	10%
	F	0%	11%

Thus, in the students' minds, the most influential person in helping them determine their post-high school plans was nobody; they did it alone. Fathers slightly gain in importance over the three years, while the role of the mother diminishes somewhat. School officials - teacher, counsellor and principal are almost insignificant in their contribution - a fact which may be very disturbing to staff who believe they operate in a helping capacity. When several counsellors were presented with these data, their interpretation was quite interesting. A counsellor, or any other "helping" individual - parent, friend, or teachers, etc. provides information, encourages interaction around the information and facilitates the student's making his own decision. Consequently, when the student is polled, he states that he made his own plans with little assistance from others - for indeed he is following a plan that he developed, notwithstanding any guidance he may have received in more clearly defining the plan.

Of prime importance are the conclusions that result from this investigation. Students change their mind, reinterpret the value of certain types of information they have received, prefer direct exposure to concrete practical occupational experiences, and contact with individuals who are doing these activities. The investigators conducting this research sum up their recommendations by stating:

We can best prepare students for change by emphasizing flexible decision-making. To facilitate this preparation, the high school counselor must attempt to counteract the all-too-prevalent notion that each student should make definite, final plans regarding his future upon leaving school. In order for a goal to be realistic it must be tentative. Rather than asking students to make specific decisions, teachers and counsellors could more usefully instruct students on the subject of how to make decisions. (6)

COUNSELLING IN VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

A number of investigations supported by the U.S. Office of Manpower Research of the Manpower Administration have shown that vocationally oriented students, in contrast to academically or profession-oriented students, do not receive adequate guidance (7). Discussions with counsellors in Ontario suggest that the same shortcoming exists here in our educational institutions.

Studies of skilled machinists and students in vocational schools in the north-east part of the U.S. reveal that counsellors in regular high schools tend to depreciate vocational education, and are not particularly sympathetic to youngsters who lack high academic aspirations. The counselling received by vocational school students was usually job-oriented - directed toward immediate problems - rather than focussing on longer-term career goals. The full variety of job possibilities, career ladders and the advantages and disadvantages of particular jobs were often generally glossed over.

A research study of the shortage of skilled workers in the Chicago and St. Louis area showed that almost 60 per cent of the tool and die makers participating in the project had received no counselling. They had obtained information on their own initiative or had, by accident, found out about the trade. School officials complained that counsellors were "poorly qualified, knew little about the skilled

occupations, and placed too much emphasis on college careers." There was a great need for the development of more adequate occupational information at the local level, and this information must be disseminated more effectively in the local labor market to employers, workers, the unemployed, students, and vocational and other educational planners.

In its 1968 General Report, the United States Advisory Council on Vocational Education stated, "There is too much guidance of a clerical type, an information-giving and receiving process with little concern or knowledge of the demands of occupations and the world of work." In the same vein, in a recent study done for the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, the researchers found two major weaknesses of counselling in the vocational schools. Counsellors were well prepared in general techniques, but did not have the special preparation and knowledge of the nature of blue-collar jobs necessary for vocational counselling. As well, the ratio of students to counsellors was much too high.

In pulling together many of these studies concerning the quality of vocational counselling, several major recommendations were offered.

- A) Counsellors who provide vocational guidance for non-college-bound students should become more aware of the employment opportunities available in the skilled trades and the variety of training paths available for entering these crafts.

- B) Vocationally oriented students need the same kind of career counselling as college-bound students. Emphasizing only job placement rather than consideration of the student's career, can result in floundering and detours which may affect earnings and eventual success.
- C) Vocational guidance needs to be introduced early in the school curriculum and should be offered on a continuing basis throughout the educational process.
- D) More work/study experiences should be available to vocationally oriented students, allowing them to be exposed to a variety of work experiences.

COUNSELLING IN AN INNER CITY COMMUNITY COLLEGE

In reviewing the literature to convey the flavour of the issues confronting our educational counsellors, there is always the risk of depersonalizing the function of counselling by concentrating on research projects, statistics, hard data and objective material. To offer the other side of the coin and provide a brief glimmer as to what it is really like to be a counsellor, we would like to summarize from an address given by Ed Sarabura, entitled Counselling in an Adult Centred Inner City Campus, presented at the June Conference of the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association (8).

Mr. Sarabura is a counsellor at the Teraulay Campus of George Brown College, located in the downtown core of Toronto. The number of students registered there varies from 1,300 to 2,300, coming from over 50 countries, speaking a wide assortment of languages and pursuing courses varying from 4 weeks to 3 years. About 60 per cent of the students are sponsored by the Department of Manpower and Immigration, 15 per cent are taking advantage of the Ontario Manpower Retraining Program, 10 per cent are apprentices, 10 per cent are post secondary students, while the remainder are referred by assorted social agencies.

Apart from lacking a marketable skill, or not being able to speak English, most students bring with them --

a history of defeats, disappointments and failures. most did not complete their education and did not acquire a skill. Many have shuttled back and forth between employment and unemployment; most have a varied

work pattern.--- Their problems are ones of self-image, of relating to their environment, of self awareness, of interpersonal relations. It does not matter what kind of training a student receives, for unless his emotional, psychological, social and cultural needs are met, he will simply revert back to the pattern from which he came.

A counsellor visits every class at least twice during each sixteen-week semester. These visits acquaint the students with the availability of counselling services, inform them of the relationship between the College and the various agencies and departments that are also involved with them, provide information on the current labour market situation, and deal with any other academic or occupational topic that may be of particular interest to a class. Their concerns require some level of expertise in an almost inexhaustible range of disparate areas -

- The Ontario educational system
- Occupational Training of Adults Act
- Prerequisites for further training at the College
- The various school services and policies
- The economic situation and employment prospects for a large number of skilled trade areas
- Department of Labour apprenticeship program
- Department of Manpower and Immigration rules and regulations
- Information pertaining to a variety of community agencies - Welfare, Unemployment Insurance, Workmen's Compensation, Legal Aid, OHSIP, etc.

The staggering load, as well as perhaps the sense of weariness that emerges, can probably best be reflected by a direct quote:

As you can see the real brunt of the programme falls on the individual counsellor. First of all, how does he become knowledgeable and retain his expertise in the face of constantly changing conditions? Secondly, the very breadth of the problems that the clients bring to him is enough to confound anyone: financial, marital, drug abuse, alcoholism, inadequacy socially and/or sexually, anxiety, legal, terms of probation, vocational, academic, depression, psychoses, neuroses, health, absenteeism, lateness, establishment of realistic goals, means of achieving ambitions, arguments with social agencies and/or law enforcement agencies to name some, but not nearly all the problems encountered. Thirdly, the pressure of time is ever-present. New students arrive almost daily; some classes terminate throughout the College every week. Trying to work out a programme, to deal with ongoing problems is always subject to the length of a client's stay. The more classes that are visited, the greater the number of clients at the counter of the counselling office, and the less time there is for professional development, for garnering information, for simple reflection.

Somehow, the counsellor is able to maintain his sense of perspective and optimism in this melting pot of society:

In case I seem to be over-enthusiastic about the process and overly naive about the results, I hasten to add that I do not claim that we are miracle workers, nor do I delude myself into believing that great numbers have had their lives changed drastically, but we can claim a measure of success which is significant and which encourages us to continue with our methods.

COMMUNITY COLLEGE COUNSELLORS' POSITION PAPER

Although every Community College has a counselling department, there appears to be considerable variation in how they are staffed, what activities they engage in, and how they are integrated within the overall organization of the College. This diversity is certainly consistent with the local autonomy of each College and the educational philosophy of its President. It was felt, however, by many of the counsellors, that a set of general guidelines was required to clarify their role, and that information provided by them might be helpful in assisting individual colleges in more effectively utilizing their counselling units. In this spirit, a questionnaire was circulated to the directors of counselling departments, soliciting their opinions on a number of issues. Following a few drafts of the responses, a final position paper was prepared by Terry Champion of Algonquin College and it was recently sent for comment to the Association of Community College Presidents.

(9) It is hoped that the position paper will serve as a basis for the establishment of a professional organization of community college counsellors, and it is our understanding that the Presidents will be considering this topic in their meetings this fall.

Because this position paper is directly related to our project and helps to convey the current attitudes of college counsellors, we are offering an extensive summary

of the views which he has collated. For purposes of clarity we will follow his model and divide this discussion into three areas.

A) Counsellors - What do they do?

There are still several institutions in which counselling is regarded as a "band-aid" operation dealing with students who have problems. This remedial service should continue to be provided, but counselling services should be available to all students in an attempt to assist them in developing to their fullest potential. Reflecting this philosophy, the following list describes the activities which counsellors indicated they should be responsible for:

For students and other members of the community, counsellors should -

- provide educational and vocational counselling, using testing where appropriate, to anyone who requests this service whether he is a student or member of the community contemplating registering at the college;
- provide personal counselling in areas involving emotional, social, family and financial difficulties;
- establish and maintain an educational and occupational library;
- refer students to appropriate agencies or individuals in the community;
- conduct orientation programs to assist the new students' adjustment to college;
- present educational and remedial seminars on topics such as studying efficiently, choosing a career, understanding drugs, etc.;
- conduct group sessions to improve interpersonal effectiveness.

For the College Administration and staff,
counsellors should -

- serve as a consultant to the administration by recommending policy and programs based on the counsellors' understanding of student needs;
- fill a consultative role for the teaching faculty to assist them in dealing with students' concerns;
- serve as a counsellor to any employee of the college and provide the same services to them as are available to the students;
- engage in research in matters of relevance to the counselling department.

The counsellor should NOT

- operate financial aid programs;
- perform admissions functions, assessing academic records and deciding who is accepted or rejected;
- conduct a placement function;
- make decisions concerning options, transfers, withdrawals or disciplinary matters.

That is, the counsellor should avoid activities in which he makes decisions or operates in an authoritarian or judgmental manner to avoid contaminating his role as a catalyst, consultant and helper.

B) Counsellors - The People

The Master's degree in psychology, counselling, student personnel services or an allied field are recruitment standards which should be established, but there should also be opportunities for employment for those with a Bachelor's degree plus extensive relevant experience. In-service training, seminars and workshops should be available to all counsellors. The personality attributes of the

counsellor are extremely important, and among other things he should be warm, understanding, open, flexible and emotionally stable.

C) Counselling - The Organization

The organization of a counselling department depends on the size and type of student body. Counsellor/student ratios vary, although recommendations within the profession range from one counsellor for every 200-400 students. This figure cannot be interpreted very clearly, however, unless one is aware of the spectrum of duties performed by the counsellor.

The counsellors participating in this survey recommended that the salary level should be in the "Master" category, and that counsellors should receive the same benefits, economic increments, and vacations as the teaching faculty. They should not be classified as administrators and should report through their director to the president or vice-president of the college, based on the principle that

if the counselling department is accountable to a senior officer who is responsible for setting priorities for the college as a whole, its effectiveness in the college and in the community will be considerably increased. (9)

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